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ABSTRACT

Papers which were presented at the Armidale Conference at the University of New England in Australia constitute the body of this book. An introduction to the book is followed by the opening address of the conference. Section one contains the conference's working papers and individual statements from some of the conference participants. The statements are grouped to follow the working paper to which their thinking has the most relevance. The paper topics include: (1) language and learning in teacher education, (2) language and literature, (3) models for collaboration, and (4) power and politics in education. Section two contains the speakers' position papers which cover such topics as classroom communication in teacher education; teaching reading and writing; language, literature, and drama in teacher education; teaching interpersonal communication skills; trends in teacher education in Australia; requirements for preservice education, and the needs of the employer. Section three includes the impressions of the conference by three conference participants. Resolutions are given at the end of the book, followed by appendixes containing two speeches. (JF)

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ENGLISH IN TEACHER EDUCATION

PAPERS OF A NATIONAL CONFERENCE: ENGLISH IN TEACHER EDUCATION, AT THE UNIVERSITY OF NEW ENGLAND, 1977

edited by Margaret Gill & W.J. Crocker

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EDITORS' NOTE

This book is an outcome of a conference held at Robb College, University of New England, from 30th August to 3rd September, 1977. The aims of the conference were to examine the potential contributions to teacher education of lecturers in the fields of English, English Education or Language Arts and to consider programmes and teaching strategies. The conference was sponsored jointly by the Armidale College of Advanced Education and the University of New England and organized by Bill Crocker and Frank Bitmead. The participation of Douglas Barnes was made possible by a grant from the British Council.
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INTRODUCTION

To begin with a cliché. We live in a changing political and economic climate: the expansive and optimistic educational drive of the years 1973-5 has been replaced by an attitude of reappraisal and doubt. Questions about educational standards, accountability, cost-effectiveness and retrenchment proliferate. And though we, as yet, have seen no official government moves to answer these questions for us via the establishment of national assessment units, as has been the case in the U.S. and U.K., we have made only a small effort to answer them ourselves. Mr. Charles Beltz, the First Assistant Secretary, reminded us of this responsibility at the official opening of the conference.

Part of this change in educational thinking is, however, potentially very valuable, for it has involved a shift in attitude about the location of educational responsibility. Decisions about the nature and evaluation of teaching and curriculum are no longer seen as the exclusive province of the "education industry". They are beginning to be shared by the public, whether parent or politician. If this collaboration is to be fruitful, it must be based on careful and informed thinking. We need a network in which those involved at every level of educational decision-making can make such thinking available to this new and wider audience, sharing their understandings of the nature and complexity of the enterprise, and offering clear and usable guidelines. The Armidale Conference performed that function in the field of English in teacher education.

In her address after the Conference Dinner, Dr Davis implied doubt in the value of conferences, in particular the transience of conference-generated enthusiasm, and the unlikelihood of permanent outcomes. But occasionally a conference does take place at the right time, with the right people, and around critical contemporary issues. The constructive power which is generated in this context is hard to measure, though it can be recognised in the long-term results. The UNESCO Seminar in Sydney in 1972 was one such conference. I believe the Armidale Conference was another.

At this moment, important national decisions have to be made about the future of teacher education, the adequacy of courses for training (English) teachers, and the necessity of defining coherent

curricular guidelines in language acquisition and development. The conference delegates, from every Australian state, were teachers, lecturers, and curriculum officers recognised for their involvement in these areas. The working papers in this book, therefore, represent an important statement for all of us responsible for the shaping of English education both at the professional and political levels. It is appropriate that this book will also be circulated to all delegates at the CDC/NCET conference on Teacher Education in English, to be held in Canberra in January, 1978.

How should these papers be read?

Firstly, with a sense of their context. In outlining his hopes for the conference, Bill Crocker wrote:

> As I see it, we are meeting in order to spell out to colleagues, administrators and anyone else who is interested what we believe lecturers in our field should be doing, why they should be doing it and what they need to do it well. Every participant should have the opportunity to raise anything he considers relevant.

The position papers of the conference speakers offered individual – and individualistic – perspectives on a range of relevant issues. Warwick Goodenough, **Some Trends in Teacher Education in Australia: An Individual Impression**, reflected with some pessimism on the state of teacher education. On the other hand, John Vaughan's paper, **What the Employer Wants**, presented a challenging set of demands to the English teacher, while at the same time deploring employers who "try to induce schools to produce human units carefully prefabricated to fit neatly into jobs which the employer has available".

Other papers suggested ways of answering these demands. Douglas Barnes', **English and Teacher Education**, raised serious questions about the way teachers value their pupils' knowledge, and invited us to consider the implications of this. Peter Moss, **Personal Narratives – Developing Knowledge**; David Homer, **Literature in Teacher Education** and John Trinder, **Drama in Teacher Education – Subject or Method**, all developed original insights relating to specific areas of the English curriculum. More importantly, they demonstrated the fruitfulness of adopting a holistic approach to language and literature, rather than a separatist one – a point also made by Ernie Tucker in his paper **What the Profession Needs.**

Some papers invited strong reactions. Thus, for example, Robert Chester's paper on **Teaching Reading** suggested a use for criterion-referenced assessment in reading, but its implied divorce of meaning-making from skills acquisition appeared to set the clock back and ignore more recent research findings, such as those of Frank Smith, Kenneth and Yetta Goodman. This point is taken up directly by Graeme Baker in one of the conference statements, and indirectly by Douglas Barnes in his Guest of Honour address.

Similarly John Collerson's paper, **Language in Teacher Education**, read in conjunction with David Homer's and Peter Moss's **Language and Learning: The Need for a New Appraisal**, reminds us of the complexity of the various linguistic and sociolinguistic models that are available to inform our thinking on language and learning. To develop this further: there are dangers in treating linguistic knowledge as a kind of pure science from which we can derive one authoritative "system" or ultimate "overarching theory" or "right answer". In developing our theoretical thinking we need to establish principles about language which will be relevant across language education and inform all aspects and levels of instruction. But these may be more valid when they emerge as a result of professional collaboration and are expressed tentatively as "considerations" rather than as dogma.[1]

Secondly, these papers should be read with an understanding of how thinking developed during the conference. While issues such as those above remained central to our concerns, it became clear that there were underlying questions of fundamental significance which needed to be taken into account, and the conference developed its thinking around these issues. What kind of world are we educating children for? Is it education for unemployment? What sorts of partnerships are possible between schools, teacher educators, employers, community? What are the moral and political choices made by teachers in their classrooms moment by moment, and what are the influences and constraints that shape them? What are the moral and political influences which educational decision-makers face at the national level, as they select priority areas, devise surveys, collect and interpret data, organise policy-defining conferences, choose key speakers and allocate federal funds to specific curriculum development projects? Furthermore, is it possible to keep these considerations in mind as we seek to clarify the task of preparing English teachers to work in a rapidly changing world? Can we offer, at the very least, guidelines towards the best theory and practice in the teaching of English?

The five conference working papers[2] represent this contribution, and reflect these concerns. The first working paper, **Language and Learning in Teacher Education: Theory and Practice Part One**, offers a synthesis of theory and practice around the central questions "How and for what purpose do we learn language?" It concludes with a series of recommendations which stress the need at this time for an authoritative national statement on language and learning across the curriculum. This is needed in order to clarify directions in teacher education institutions and schools. In conjunction with this, the paper also points to the need for an organised education "lobby", or voice, to

1. An excellent example is to be found in B. Fillion, F. Smith, and M. Swain, *Language "Basics" for Language Teachers: Towards a Set of Universal Considerations*, **Language Arts** Vol.53, No.7 (Oct. 1976) p.4.

2. Although each working paper appears under one author, it derives from the thinking, discussion and written contributions of the members of each group, whose names appear on page 82.

facilitate informed, shared participation in any decision-making that affects English teaching at any level, a point which Ted Rush takes up in his statement, and which finds its final articulation in Motion 2 of the Conference Resolutions.

Working Paper 2, **Language and Learning in Teacher Education: Theory and Practice Part Two**, adopts a practical approach and provides some answers to the question "What courses can we frame that will help our students on the way to developing their own rationale about language and literature?" Both these working papers are important reading for teachers involved in course planning in schools and CAE'S.

Working Paper 3, **Language and Literature**, attempts to answer the questions "What is the place of language and literature in the preparation of teachers, and how are language and literature related in this context?" Its central argument is that prospective teachers should be encouraged to develop their own capacity to make meanings, to expand their own network of understandings of themselves and the world, through the reading of literature and the use of language in other modes, such as speaking and writing. It is relevant reading for all English teachers.

Working Paper 4, **Models of Collaboration**, offers a set of powerful working examples based on the assumption that "the development of language and English in CAE's and universities cannot be considered in isolation from other faculties within these institutions, and that the development of tertiary institutions cannot be considered apart from society itself." The force of this paper lies in the choice of examples of collaboration already operating, and leads to a conclusion recommending the establishment of formal structures of collaboration. Hence Motion 3 of the Conference Resolutions. If busy administrators and politicians have time to read only one paper from this volume, perhaps this should be the one.

The final working paper, **About Power and Politics in Education**, attempts an analysis of power relationships in education, and touches many facets of this immensely complex topic: political, organisational, intellectual and personal. Its final message reminds us that, if we want to discover how a teacher may work in the best interests of the child, then we must understand the network of constraints and supports which shape educational decision-making at every level, from classroom to Cabinet desk.

The book is divided into three sections. Section One contains the conference working papers and individual statements from some of the conference participants. The statements are grouped to follow the working paper to which their thinking has most relevance. Section Two contains the speakers' position papers. Section Three is different in mood and style. It captures something of the flavour of the conference, and perhaps has more meaning for the conference participant than for other readers.

Any seminar worth its salt is a drama.

The Armidale Conference was more than this; it was a conversation. In the speakers' position papers, we have the beginnings of the conversation, the initial sharing of ideas. In the conference working papers and individual statements, we see the development and extension of those ideas. The resolutions indicate directions for action. But a good conversation never finishes. The Armidale Conference established a valuable precedent for teachers, teacher educators, and administrators in the field of English. They must continue to meet in this way to face new issues, share new thinking, offer new guidelines. The conversation must continue.

Margaret Gill

OPENING ADDRESS

C.L. Beltz
First Assistant Secretary
Department of Education, Canberra

The organisers of this conference extended an invitation to the Federal Minister for Education, Senator John Carrick, to give the opening address. Unfortunately, the Minister had other commitments today, so he asked me to do it in his stead. He specifically wished me to emphasize that he has a very real and strong interest in the theme of this conference and genuinely regrets that he was unable to attend this opening session.

You are all aware of the concentration of conferences and seminars in these weeks of school holidays, and none more so than those in the education sphere. A major one is currently underway in Melbourne, the ANZAAS Congress. The Minister has had a longstanding commitment to give a major address there and, by coincidence, it is today that he is scheduled to deliver it. Among the issues which he will be raising are several which are likely to be of great interest to the participants in this conference.

Your theme, "English in Teacher Education", is one which is attracting a great deal of comment and concern in the community at large, as well as among educationists, administrators and politicians. It links two major issues and I would suggest that each is worthy of your detailed attention. On the one hand, the focus is on English language which is the major means of communication in this country and the virtually sole medium of instruction in the whole of the formal education process from preschool to university. On the other, there is teacher education, the institutionalised process through which the prospective classroom teacher is being prepared for the task of enabling future generations of Australians to acquire a command of the English language, by way of a formal learning experience, at least adequate for a satisfying life in the complex society of tomorrow.

I can do no more in these brief remarks than refer to a few aspects which might be further discussed over the next several days of this conference. Some of these are already touched on in papers contributed by subsequent speakers, but they seem to me of such importance that they deserve mentioning in this first address.

A major preoccupation of teacher training institutions at the moment is with their own future, particularly so in the advanced education sector. The looming over-supply of school teachers has raised many questions about the viability of at least some of the former

teacher training colleges. Warwick Goodenough, in his paper to this conference, puts the case very bluntly when he states that if there were no intakes into teacher education courses at all for the next five years, there would still be an ample supply of teachers to meet expected demand. Without wishing to comment on the quantitative aspects of the teacher supply/demand situation, it would seem to me that there is an excellent opportunity now to give much greater attention to issues of quality. I will come back to some of these later.

It has been suggested that one way by which the colleges are trying to overcome the problems in teacher education is by playing the numbers game. Filling allotted quotas of intakes by wide advertising and without any selection, diversifying courses, becoming multi-purpose rather than single-purpose institutions, all these are said to be used in attempts to demonstrate viability and to obtain an appropriate share in the total resources available for advanced education. Apart from the new Tertiary Education Commission, it is expected that the National Inquiry into Education and Training (the Williams Committee) will have something authoritatively to say about this in its report which will be submitted in mid-1978. We will all be very interested in that report, I should imagine.

Several members of the National Committee on English Teaching are attending this conference. That Committee has an obvious and very great interest in the theme to be discussed here. It is evidence of the close link between the teaching of English in the classroom and teacher training – I use teacher training and teacher education interchangeably but cannot help wondering sometimes whether the two are indeed synonymous and, if not, what emphasis each should receive – that the Committee's major program activity is a survey of teacher training institutions in an attempt to establish what in fact is being done in the preparation of teachers of English. The chairman's preliminary report on the survey, Warwick Goodenough's paper, suggests that there may well be reason for serious concern about many aspects of that preparation. I have little doubt that there will be lively discussion of the issues raised in his paper.

If there is agreement that teacher education is about equipping the propsective teacher for the tasks that await him or her in the class-room, it would appear a logical assumption that teacher educators would have their ears close to the ground all the time to ensure that their courses are designed to that purpose. I do not want to become involved in an argument about the various purposes of teacher education (or training?) but it seems axiomatic to me that whatever fine tertiary education and personal development the trainee teacher may gain, if he or she cannot reasonably competently cope with the every day problems of the actual class-room there is something wrong. It is often teachers themselves who express disappointment at their inability to cope and who point, rightly or wrongly, at perceived deficiencies in their pre-service training. It can hardly be accidental that in-service education is receiving so much attention both here in Australia

and overseas – and absorbs a fair share of the educational resources. I do not want to imply that in-service teacher training is simply a device to make up for the deficiencies of pre-service training; it is impossible to equip trainee teachers now for problems which may not arise for another ten or twenty years – when they will still be teachers. It is different, however, with regard to the problems that are with us here and now.

One of the overseas participants, Doug Barnes, makes some observations in his paper which could well be pertinent to our situation. In making his distinction between "school knowledge" and "action knowledge", he states:

> "Much of what is taught in colleges and university departments of education is school knowledge; at least in the United Kingdom, it seldom makes much contact with what the students will do in the classroom", (p.8)

The suggestion is that there is a significant gap between what teacher trainers teach and what the classroom teacher has to face.

One of the most significant changes which has taken place in Australia since the Second World War is large scale immigration. Approximately half of the total number came from non-English speaking countries. They have changed the face of Australia in many visible and invisible ways. We are no longer a monocultural society, as essentially we were until the late 1940s. Migrants have made an impact in many aspects of life, and made a major contribution to the economic development over the last few decades. Where immigration has conspicuously failed to make an impact is in relation to social institutions, education not being the least among them.

It took us until 1970 before a special Commonwealth program to assist migrant schoolchildren in learning English as a Second Language was introduced. It was not until several years later that there appeared instances of appreciation of migrant languages and cultures – other than folk dances and national costumes. Teacher training institutions have, with few exceptions, paid scant attention to the changes in Australia and in Australian classrooms as a result of immigration If you forgive me for being blunt, education has ignored the needs of migrants for thirty years; in respect of Aboriginals, their needs were ignored for almost two hundred years.

Nobody would deny that learning English is one of the most pressing needs for those of non-English speaking background be they migrants from overseas or Aboriginals. (The same might also apply to "native" Australians who are non-standard-English speakers.) But so far, our efforts have been characterized by the approach of "forget what language you have, there is only room for English here". It would be no exaggeration to say that education has been one of the most powerful assimiliationist agents in our society over the last thirty years, and has not changed its practice or its basic approach despite the fact that the assimilation policy was officially rejected almost twenty years ago.

Referring back to the need to prepare trainee teachers for the classroom problems of 1977, it is indisputable that migrant children pose a number of problems – and have done so for many years – which few teachers have been prepared for. Yet, there is a wealth of documentation in the form of major studies and inquiries which in recent years have highlighted the needs of migrants and Aboriginals and called for more than superficial changes in education.[1] The last few years have seen many attempts at individual schools and by individual teachers to modify programs and make them more relevant to the children in their classrooms. There still is a conspicuous lack of recognition at the level of school systems and in teacher training institutions that the traditional approaches to school organisation and classroom teaching are no longer valid.

Let me make it clear that I am not advocating a special deal for migrant and Aboriginal children alone. My concern is with the most relevant education for all children. We would not gain much in the longer term if special provision for minority groups were at the expense of the majority of children. I believe, however, that the preparation of our classroom teachers is still conducted on the basis of a philosophy which may have been valid earlier in this century but is so no more. According to the 1971 Census, some five million out of a total population of twelve million were either born overseas or born in Australia of overseas born parents. Half of those five millions, or one in every five persons, had a non-English speaking background. That fact also applies to our classrooms, but it has not changed our approaches to teacher preparation in any significant way.

There would probably be no disagreement among us that the basic development of language, concepts and values takes place in the first five or six years in a child's life. In practice, this means that by the time a child reaches formal schooling age, it is mentally, intellectually, and culturally identified with a particular home and social environment. It is in many ways a complete person. If the language and culture of the home is English, or at least genuinely bilingual, it does not encounter a direct conflict when entering school.

Can you imagine what it is like for the child of a non-English speaking background to commence formal schooling? It is confronted by a world in which it is totally incapable of participating. Communication is impossible, tasks are not understood, even play is often inaccessible to it. The whole environment of the school, adult teachers and other children alike, seem to be conveying the one message: what you are, who you are, what you know and what you can do – it all does not matter at all. You do not matter until you conform to our language, our ways of doing things, Until you do that, your are a non-entity.

1. E.G. **Learning Difficulties in Children and Adults**, Report of the House of Representatives Select Committee on Specific Learning Difficulties, A.G.P.S. 1976; **Report of the Committee on the Teaching of Migrant Languages in Schools**, A.G.P.S. 1976; **Poverty and Education in Australia**, Fifth Main Report of the Commission of Inquiry into Poverty, A.G.P.S. 1976; **Inquiry into Schools of High Migrant Density**, 1974, A.G.P.S. 1975.

I am painting this deliberately black and white, but I want to give you some understanding of the tremendous, traumatic experiences which our schools hold in store for children of a different language and cultural background. Teachers rarely know how to give children in that situation a real sense of identity, of recognition of the value and the validity of their "different" culture. It is not so long ago that these children were explicitly forbidden to use their own language, even during play-time with peers of the same background. Parents were prohibited from coming onto the schoolground, let alone into the classroom. Contact with parents tended to be a one-way communication process, and all of it was in English. If at home there were any value placed on maintenance of the ethnic language, the children were inevitably drawn into direct conflict with their parents and social group. On the one hand, they had to accommodate the assimilationist pressures from the school and their peer group both of which are tremendously important to a child. On the other, home became increasingly a barrier and a frustration in that process of assimilation; yet, it provided the basic personal and emotional security which children crave for, it was more truly "theirs". I can assure you that being caught between two cultures as a child leaves indelible scars in people unless there is the cultural tolerance which acknowledges the intrinsic quality and validity of other, different cultures within a pluralistic society. I am not too sure that the dominant culture has manifested much of that tolerance over the past few decades, particularly in education as one of its major socio-cultural institutions.

Irrespective of what has happened in the past, we must now look to what is to be done for the future. I hope, however, that we can learn from the lessons of history and take a hard, critical look at ourselves and what we are doing. Education, and the preparation of tomorrow's teachers, need to reflect the society we live in – as it is, not as we would like it to be. Australia is a multicultural society with a diversity of languages, cultures, religion, value systems and skin colours. All our children will live in that society and should be equipped to live a fulfilling life in it.

I would like to leave a few thoughts with you on the implications for teacher training. They may hopefully contribute to a review by teacher trainers of the contribution they can make to the quality of school teaching. I have given such emphasis to the multicultural character of our society since I believe that that is a sadly ignored dimension of the education process. There is no teacher trainee in Australia who can expect to encounter a classroom for more than one or two appointments without being confronted with language and cultural problems.

Firstly, it seems to me almost mandatory that all prospective teachers have a basic knowledge and understanding of how to teach English as a Second Language. This would be assisted if it were accompanied with a general appreciation of linguistics, and of ethnic backgrounds and cultures. I would include Aboriginals when referring to

"ethnic".

Secondly, an ability to teach reading should form part of the equipment of any teacher. If reading is not mastered, worthwhile participation in formal education becomes well nigh impossible. Some insights in the problems of teaching to read, particularly in relation to personal and out-of-school factors of importance, are interestingly described in a recent publication by the Australian Council for Educational Research.[2]

Thirdly, classroom teachers ought to be equipped to deal essentially with all the "normal" problems of the classroom, i.e. they should become, and feel, competent to deal adequately with the range of problems any group of children represents, with reliance on specialists only in cases where specialised knowledge is clearly required. We must avoid a situation where the very presence of specialist teachers induces classroom teachers to refer every problem to them, out of the classroom.

Fourthly, teacher training might focus on the natural relationship between the school and the home, seeing the whole development of the child as the context within which formal education is placed, and acknowledging that home and other out-of-school influences are at least equally important as formal teaching. This would require an enormous change in attitude on the part of both teacher trainers and teachers themselves as it would lead to a voluntary abandonment of the educational fortress, the school, and open it to the community around it. I do not for one moment belittle the difficulties in the path towards this goal; there are many entrenched attitudes and institutionalised barriers to be overcome. It would, however, publicly endorse a recognition by the teaching profession that it is the child that education is for and about and not, as sometimes is suggested, the teacher. It would emphasize the need for teachers and parents to work much more closely together for the benefit of the child, and would ensure that teachers know the home and its background when dealing with problems in the classrooms.

Finally, professionalism, It is a word which somehow seems to be used more frequently by teacher educators and teachers than by any other occupational group. Why that should be so, one could only guess. All I would want to say is that the community at large wants the teacher to be a professional in the real sense of the word, i.e. someone who publicly professes his or her commitment to the formation and development of children. I believe that instilling that commitment in trainee teachers is a primary task of teacher trainers and teacher educators.

I wish you a rewarding and fruitful experience in the discussions and have pleasure in declaring this conference open.

2. J.A. Richardson, F.T. Court, J.A. Hart, **Books for the Retarded Reader**, Sixth Edition, A.C.E.R. 1977, pp.7-15.

WORKING PAPER 1

LANGUAGE AND LEARNING IN TEACHER EDUCATION: THEORY AND PRACTICE

PART ONE

Frances Christie

The central questions that should concern those of us involved in teacher education are: how and for what purposes do we learn language? They are central because coming to terms with issues of how and why we use language involves coming to terms with the nature of knowledge itself. It is through language that we express identity, shape experience and information, make meanings, and, in the words of Douglas Barnes, create 'action knowledge' – knowledge that is, that is significant for ouselves.

Many of our most important understandings about language and what it does for us we have learnt (albeit unconsciously, for the most part) by about the age of 5 or 6 when we arrive at school and the business of formal education commences. We have learnt, for example that language is a tool with which we sort out, comment on, and hence articulate, experience, express needs, build relationships; that it is a resource with which in Halliday's words we 'get things done'.

In addition, language is learnt in interaction, for man is social. Both his capacity to learn and use language on the one hand, and the kinds of purposes for which he uses it, on the other, are in themselves expressions of man as social being.

The point applies even though young children characteristically spend much of their time in the pre-school years talking to themselves, their toys, their pictures, and so on. It is child as social being that is expressed in such situations, and it is about experience which is essentially social that the child is talking, be that experience in the family or the wider community.

As the child shapes and articulates experience, so that he is learning that language is a resource with which he makes meanings, he is also learning that he shapes much of his experience in dialogue, that the patterns of response, even of argument for example, help to clarify ideas, information, and sense of self.

It should be apparent, once we have isolated some of the purposes for which children learn to use language, that language continues to serve the same purposes throughout life: that we all continue to shape experience, to come to terms with information, to make meanings.

This kind of understanding about the relationship between language and learning has important consequences for educational

theory and practice, for it implies that language is central to learning, and that good practice should recognise this. In addition, it will be clear, such an understanding of the relationship between language and learning takes us well beyond the confines of a concern with the teaching of the subject 'English', with its traditional concerns with literature, the language arts, and the like, important though these are. It takes us across the curriculum, having implications for the ways in which all subject specialties should be viewed and taught.

For the purpose of the present discussion, there are at least two kinds of consequences for those of us involved in teacher education.

In the first place, it is necessary that all student teachers be assisted to grasp this particular perspective upon language and learning, both in the interests of their own learning, and because it has profound implications for their understanding of, and response to, children.

Secondly, the programmes in our colleges need to be designed in such a way that students can grow into understandings about themselves, about how they learn, about the functions language serves in their own lives, and hence move into a concern with how children learn language, the functions it serves for children, and the importance of varieties of language experience and exposure.

In acting upon these consequences of our general position about language and learning, the theory we as teacher educators employ will be drawn from insights gained from such figures as Britton, Barnes, Halliday, Tough, Wilkinson, the Rosens, and others who have helped to shape the climate of our thinking about language and learning for the last decade.

It must be a major aim of our activity as teacher educators both to provide an example of good practice, and to help student teachers, through experience of that practice, to articulate a theory of language and learning for themselves.

Thus, student teachers should ideally grow into understanding in two senses – a 'process' sense, and a 'content' sense.

In the 'process' sense, students should be investigating processes involved in learning, the functions of language in learning, the nature and effects of teachers' questions, in assisting learning, the relationship of writing to talk, and the implications for the nature of their own use of language with children.

In the 'content' sense, students will be coming to terms with the content necessary for their own education, and necessary for them to teach. In the case of English, this will embrace literature, both adults' and children's literature, the language arts, drama. In the case of history, geography, or mathematics for example, students will be involved with the concepts particular to those subject areas. Here, among other issues, they might consider the kinds of language demands such concepts make upon those who learn such subject disciplines. They should also consider here the language needs of children whose mother tongue is not English: such children have particular problems when handling much of the language of a number of subject disciplines.

It is necessary to point out, however, that in an important way the two kinds of understandings concerning process and content are inextricably bound together. We hear much discussion in educational debate from time to time of such notions as process as opposed to product, or content as opposed to method, where it is assumed in each case that a clearcut distinction exists. The reality surely is that they are part and parcel of the same thing, and that one learns little about the one, without being also concerned with, and learning about, the other.

To say this is not to deny however, that issues of technique in teaching do not concern us as teacher educators. We want rather to get beyond the level of offering our student teachers 'handy hints' and 'tricks of the trade' to a recognition that any intelligent way of working as a teacher involves good techniques, the validity of each one of which must be checked out against our theoretical understanding of what is involved in learning.

And that brings us to the hoary problem in teacher education debate of the relationship of theory to practice. Learning is significant when the learner is central to the shaping of his own understanding. *That* consideration must determine teaching practice and techniques. In some ways, this particular formulation of what constitutes significant learning is not new, for some educational psychologists have offered it to us before. What can we say about it in the light of our knowledge about language? We can say that the learner will be shaping his own understanding either in talk or in writing, but never in isolation. We can say further that the participation of others – teachers and other learners – assists the process of individual shaping, for in talk the learner responds to, or is responded to. Writing, if it is to be worthwhile, is written for an audience. In this sense, learning is always a social activity.

Consideration of language and learning, and of the kinds of climate in which children appear to learn best, led our working party fairly naturally into consideration of issues to do with school experience and contact with children generally, for opportunity to work with, talk to and listen to children sensitively is clearly important in developing a teacher alert to the significance of language in learning.

Frequent contact with children and experience in schools should constitute an integral part of the ongoing development of teachers.

Thus, the still widespread practice of educating secondary teachers in a four year programme in which only the fourth year offers a crowded orientation to the needs of children and the concerns of learning and teaching, is unsatisfactory. Equally unsatisfactory, however, are the other arrangements still applying in some colleges by which student teachers enter schools twice a year for 'blocks' of practice teaching.

Such arrangements are limited in their value for at least two reasons. In the first place, the contact with children is too brief in most cases for the student teacher to achieve many significant insights and understandings, let alone observe any growth in his relationship with

children. Secondly, partly because of the administrative pressures of colleges placing students in supervised periods of teaching, on the basis of which students are normally being assessed, the students are not afforded the best circumstances in which to concentrate carefully and gradually upon building an expanding understanding of how children talk, work, and learn. Such an understanding, by its very nature, is slow to develop.

The contact student teachers need with children should be varied. It should certainly avoid an immediate entry by the student teacher into the classroom with 30 or 30+ children. Young teachers need plenty of opportunity to relate to, talk to, listen to, children, and hence to build from their own observations a growing awareness of how children shape their understandings in a variety of ways and a variety of contexts. This involves observing and talking to children not only in the classroom, but also in the playground, the street, the family, or indeed any other situations.

For the observation to be useful, and the listening and talking to be useful and informed, student teachers need to have developed some analytic tools or principles with which to study what is going on. It is our function as teacher educators to help them develop these, intitally, perhaps, by starting with observation of themselves, and how and for what purposes they use language. Here, recording themselves in discussion, or keeping language diaries observing and recording how their own language alters over a day in different contexts, may be helpful.

Moving on to studying transcripts or audio or videotapes of children and adults talking can be useful, including again recording and analysis of student teachers' own talk with children. The kinds of analytic tools Barnes has suggested for examining classroom dialogue, particularly questioning, in **Language, the Learner and the School** are relevant here. Comparing transcripts or videotapes of group or whole class discussion can lead to further exploration both of questioning (children's as well as teachers') and of how the quality of language differs from the one situation to the other. Overwhelmingly, the purpose of all language study undertaken should be to encourage student teachers to explore systematically language as a resource with which meanings are made. Studying the significance of body language in the total context of work and talk is also useful, as is the study of how physical circumstances determining furniture arrangement, seating and the like, influence the kind of talk which is generated.

The relationship of reading and writing to talk should also be studied and explored by student teachers. Much of the incentive both to read and write grows fairly naturally out of talk, though the language of the written form obviously departs from the spoken form in important ways. Considering this in itself and the possible implications for the difficulties encountered by children learning to write and read is desirable. Student teachers need opportunity to study the relationship of the written to the spoken form, and to observe and work with

children reading and writing, often on a small group or even one-to-one basis. It should be stressed that the latter observation applies just as much for secondary student teachers as for infants and primary teachers. Secondary teachers, like their primary and infants colleagues, need to know about the processes involved in reading and writing. Indeed, they need to know far more than has hitherto been deemed necessary for secondary teachers, and once again the point applies across the curriculum. All student teachers in all subject areas might reasonably be asked to consider what expectations they have when they ask their pupils to write. The essential question with which all student teachers need to be confronted is: why encourage children to write at all? In addition, what demands are placed upon children in writing essays, keeping notes, writing up reports, summarising information and why do we ask children to do these things? What demands are made in asking pupils to handle and use textbooks? It is a different activity from reading literature, though the question: what do you expect of a child reading a piece of literature? is also pertinent.

The first opportunities to teach, in the opinion of our work party, should be with small groups of perhaps half a dozen children, since if we are to offer any help to student teachers in breaking conventional patterns of teaching, in which pupil participation is often quite minimal, they need opportunity to work with children in essentially relaxed and non-threatening ways. The large group or whole class is for many a student teacher threatening, so that the temptation to abandon alternatives and revert to chalk and talk is very strong.

The movement to teaching whole classes after much work with small groups can be done in a number of ways: offering the student teacher opportunity to team teach with fellow students, or with experienced teachers; encouraging the student teacher to organise whole class activities in such a way that classes are broken into small groups, thereby preserving the benefits of small group talk and activity.

Consideration of our view of the relationship between language and learning, and of its implications for the most preferred patterns of school and teaching experience, led our working party to confronting the very considerable problems of resistance likely to be met both in schools, and amongst some of our colleagues in colleges and elsewhere. A number of proposals were advanced to assist student teachers, teachers and teacher educators concerned to achieve a recognition and understanding of the relationship between language and learning, and of the need for policies of language across the curriculum. The proposals offer an indication of important priorities and directions those of us involved in teacher education might take up.

We need the following:

1) An authoritative national statement on language and learning and learning across the curriculum. Such a statement is urgently needed in the interests of clarifying directions in teacher educating institutions, as well as in schools. It is also needed to meet concerned parents, employers, and political leaders, particularly those currently involved in

cries of 'back to the basics' in the teaching of language and literature;
2) A teacher education lobby within the A.A.T.E., both to enlist the support of teachers in promoting and understanding of language and learning, and to achieve regular discussion of problems to do with teacher education at A.A.T.E. conferences;
3) Well organised lobbies of concerned teachers and teacher educators operating within all major political parties;
4) Support for student teachers and practising teachers in the schools, who, for a variety of reasons, mainly institutional and administrative, find themselves unable to implement policies in their teaching consistent with notions of language and learning. Particularly in the case of student teachers, they need to be equipped with strategies with which to cope with living with the gap between their own aspirations and the reality of much that goes on in the schools. These may well be called survival strategies for it is important that young teachers be assisted to cope with disappointment, particularly that experienced in relationship with older colleagues unsympathetic to their efforts at developing alternative models of teaching.

WORKING PAPER 2

LANGUAGE AND LEARNING IN TEACHER EDUCATION: THEORY AND PRACTICE

PART TWO

David Mallick

> *"In our opinion what is learnt from a course in English in Teacher Education must be 'action knowledge' rather than 'school knowledge'. The ways we teach our students and the content of our courses will be reflected in the ways they teach their pupils".*
>
> Statement by working party.

The Problem

It is easy enough to state the main problem facing us in framing our courses – we have *two* conflicting demands made upon us. Many teachers insist that what the students need is a "nuts and bolts" answer to classroom teaching – how to devise lesson plans, how to keep a class under control, write on the blackboard, speak clearly etc. To me such an attitude seems dangerously limited, seeing teaching as an activity that can be learnt with a few simple behavioural rules. Behind it certainly lies the idea of School Knowledge as Douglas Barnes calls it.

But then there are those who call for theory – philosophical, psychological, sociological, linguistic theory – detached, disengaged theory. Now what do we do with the accusation, almost universal, that such courses are unsatisfactory, that they have nothing to do with life in the classroom, with real people and demanding classroom situations? Where have the theoretical courses fallen down? How neatly do they fit Barnes' idea of inert School Knowledge? Do they concentrate on issues which cannot be taken over into the students' own thinking and practice? What is the difference in value between those grey American behaviorist psychology textbooks with their chapters on language and the careful, tentative, documented work of Barnes and Britton with its massive impact?

Warwick Goodenough in his paper showed us our dilemma. He rightly insisted that "the few precious years that students have in tertiary education should not be wasted on trivia" and criticised some teacher education courses for over concern with methodological aspects and lack of integrated theory. This is an attitude that could be caused by an inadequate understanding of methodology and by an experience of method work that led Postman and Weingartner to claim that such courses are "conspiracies of emptiness which are universally ridiculed

because their finest ambition is how to write lesson plans, when to use an overhead projector and why it is desirable to have the room at a comfortable temperature".[1]

So there is a dilemma. Our theory is criticised and our method work is ridiculed. But we must face up to the question of what our students need from the course. James Britton argues that only intelligent theory can give us a consistent way of thinking against which our actual day to day practice can be evaluated.[2] He claims that in so complex an activity as teaching we will always fall short of our aims but that our practice can only be evaluated against those aims. The impact of new ideas must be upon rationale rather than upon our immediate behaviour. Without some developing philosophy we are likely to follow unthinkingly the newest educational practice or movement. I am conscious of this having happened with childrens' creative writing. In the 60's creative writing was emphasised and some very exciting work was done in classrooms, but theorists at that stage had not examined the whole idea critically enough and teachers took it over all too easily. It could be that the initial shallowness in thinking is resulting in the present scepticism and the dreary call of "back to basics". I have at the moment some fears about the debate on expressive language and its crucial importance in learning. I am certain that Britton's emphasis upon the importance of expressive language has quite profound implications for our work in the classroom but it raises a great number of theoretical and practical issues that must be thought through or else it too will fall into disrepute.

And so what courses can we frame that will help our students on the way to developing their own rationale about language and literature? What courses can we frame which are structured to emphasise the relationship between academic and professional studies – courses that can link the study of literature, language and teaching practice, courses that can help send out teachers who are not only well educated but intelligent and questioning in their practice.

Close reading of the Conference papers shows that many are aware of the issues:

Douglas Barnes – *I find linguistics a fascinating subject but of very little use in understanding pedagogical issues.*

Warwick Goodenough – *There is generally the strongest dissatisfaction with the lack of integration between the content of the subject area and its pedagogic aspects.*

David Homer – *This is primarily a course of literary study, but it is also an introductory course in language study and one in methodology as well.*

NCTE Document – *How can a programme assure the personal growth of a teacher at the same time that it provides for the development of knowledge and professional skill.*

1. N. Postman, C. Weingartner, **Teaching as a Subversive Activity**, Penguin, 1969.
2. In an unpublished paper **"Principles and Methods of Teaching English"**.

Now we cannot leave the problem at this level of generality. The working party tried to state three principles that could lie behind our courses. [These are put forward very tentatively but the suggestion was made that a future conference could be built around the focal point.]

The Principles

(a) The use of concrete material, especially children's and students' writing and talki g to raise general pedagogical and linguistic theory. It was pointed out how Douglas Barnes' early work concentrated on only a few snatches of human dialogue but it raised large and crucial issues.

(b) What prejudices about response to literature do students have and what kinds of literature courses have led to these prejudices?

(c) The principle of concentrating on process rather than product. How can student teachers come to see that their processes of response are similar in nature to the processes of children?

The Courses

(1) What do we mean by working on practical material to raise larger theoretical issues? Holbrook led the way in the 60's when he started looking seriously at children's writing. He encouraged teachers to "take" imaginative writing and to make positive responses to children's work. He suggested that training courses should involve many seminar sessions where tutors and students "meet in the word", asking three questions about children's writing:

(a) What do I say to myself about the piece?

(b) What do I say to the child?

(c) What follow-up work, especially the use of literature, can grow out of such writing?

Holbrook was encouraging teachers to raise psychological, aesthetic and classroom issues out of what could first appear to be slight childish words. These seminars must not be places where information is given about the creative process or where tips on teaching are given (though certainly practical questions of evaluation and use will arise in discussion) but places where tutors and students meet to stumble their way through to an understanding of some of the strange and important processes that lie behind words.

Some years later James Britton raised similar questions about talking. In looking at a transcript he asked: "How much of this talk is simply for the record – an effect of the presence of the microphone? Does any individual girl in fact represent ideas that she really subscribes to? Or is each of them merely offering common currency, the small change of talk among their elders? Alternatively, in a different image are they doing more than taking a nice warm dip together in comfortable beliefs that they all hold, have all talked about often enough

before. Is anything happening to anybody in this talk is anybody changing or laying herself open to change"?[3] Britton is encouraging us to listen to people's talk as Holbrook encouraged us to think about their writing.

What kinds of courses or units of work can we offer as illustrations? One member of the Commission, Joan Rothery offered the following.

Her course wanted to consider the functions of language. The main material used was Halliday's "Relevant Models of Language" and over one hundred pieces of children's writing. The course concentrated mainly on the theory that children learn their language because of their very early realisation of the function it serves them. Remembering that theoretical issues were discussed with constant reference being made to actual writing done by students and pupils, the following were the seminar issues:

(a) The importance of organizing situations for writing in school which enable children to see its functional relevance both as a means of learning and as a means of communication.

(b) An examination of writing situations that students have encountered in schools and discussion of whether the reason for writing was clear.

(c) An examination of audience for writing and an introduction to Britton's theory of audience categories.

(d) An examination of pieces of writing by children and a consideration of Britton's function categories.

(e) The students do some writing (based on their own childhood) and time is spent in discussing the pieces of writing.

(f) Pieces of writing by children on childhood are discussed and evaluated.

(g) The joint planning of themes, units of work that incorporate writing.[4]

There were several other units of work described that are worth mentioning.

Reference was made to Peter Abbs' **Autobiography in Education.**[5] The book contains an excellent rationale for student teachers writing autobiography. He criticises those teacher educators who see their role as "disseminating to the students more from the ever expanding fund of empirical knowledge provided by the social sciences" and those educators who think the time is best spent by introducing the students to the practical problems of the classroom. He argues that only reflection on our own educational backgrounds and experiences is

3. D. Barnes et al, **Language, the Learner and the School**, Penguin, 1971, p. 85.
4. It is regretted that such a course has to be reported in point form. I would suggest that we could all gain from fuller description of such work – its rationale, its material, its progress.
5. P. Abbs, **Autobiography in Education**, Heinemann, 1974.

an adequate preparation for the more impersonal study of psychology, sociology and philosophy. Seminar discussion of autobiography is a very useful way of encouraging that reflection.

Then there was the experiment of having the students writing their own short stories. Discussion centred on the process and problems of writing, reference being made to the chapter in **Patterns of Language** where the authors discuss teachers writing. Various literary, aesthetic and classroom problems were discussed in relation to the stories – the uniqueness of self, the uniqueness of expression, the uniqueness of form, the distancing of art.

Another working party member described an interesting smaller version of the Abbs' plan. He asked his Diploma of Education students in an assignment "to recall one or two English lessons which they thought pleasant and valuable and discuss where the pleasure and value lay". Three interesting things happened:

(a) Many students were disturbed by the openness of the assignment. Some thought it was not really an assignment for University graduates.

(b) The results made very interesting reading.

(c) Some students merely wrote what was not much more than stereotyped lesson plans; some wrote perceptive and personal analyses of the lessons; a few wrote stories and poems. This gave the lecturer a chance to explore Britton's writing model with some success.

Now these small experiments seem to have two valuable things in common:

(a) The work was based on small pieces of writing – done by students or pupils.

(b) They are very practical undertakings though they cannot long remain innocent of theory.

(2) The second principle pointed to the limited ideas on literary response that many students have, and the possibility that some conventional literature courses often contribute to these prejudices.

For too long we have complained about the stock, stereotyped answers that we get in our critical essays, the lame, borrowed, imitative critical writing that shows so little of the felt response we so desire. Three quotations have influenced my own thinking and learning about the problem. The first two come from I.A. Richards **Practical Criticism.**[6] Richards wrote: "The sincere and innocent reader is much too easily bounced into emptying his mind by any literary highwayman who says, 'I want your opinion', and much too easily laid low because he has nothing to produce on these occasions. He might be comforted if he knew how many professionals make a point of carrying stocks of imitation currency, crisp and bright, which satisfy the highwayman and are all that even the wealthiest critic in these emergencies can supply".

6. I.A. Richards, **Practical Criticism**, Routledge, 1929.

How many of our conventional literature courses help to form the habit of being literary highwaymen? What can we do to alert the students to the great complexity of response to literature? Richards wrote about this complexity: "Making up our minds about a poem is the most delicate of all undertakings. We have to gather together millions of semi-fleeting impulses into a momentary structure of fabulous complexity whose core or germ only is given us in the words – what we make up, that momentary trembling order in our minds, is exposed to countless irrelevant influences". And then there is Britton's delightful image on response: "The meaning is an emergent pattern of relationships – more like a negative in a developing dish than it is like a train coming out of a tunnel".

How should such quotations influence us and our work in English with student teachers? Many teachers surely barge in with their aggressive bushranger kind of attitude not necessarily because of limited sensibility, but because they have forgotten or not been encouraged to be aware of the tentative nature of their own response to art. Teachers need to be alert to the problem, trying to build on the small contributions that will come their way in class discussion and children's writing.

The following piece of work done with Diploma of Education students was offered to the working party as a starting point for discussion.

In an article in **English in Education**[7] Mike Torbe discusses how he has for years felt that in his teaching of literature he had often prevented his students' active engagement with literature. He describes how he had his students keep a diary on Hemingway's novels. One student handed in the following (a short extract from the diary):

Tuesday 6th June: Group decided to 'do' 'The Snows of Kilimanjaro' so read that – missed it the first time I read Hemingway–surprise ending–must think about it. 11.30a.m. In car–re-read book (Snows) made some notes on it. Like his directness (Hemingway's) there are no unnecessary words–no padding–also like simplicity.

. . . .

Wed 7/6/72. Am enjoying F to Arms although I prefer the male characters to Miss Barkely and the other women.

Hemingway is confident and completely in control of his *masculine world.* When he writes of women it is from a male viewpoint–he makes little attempt to give them depth of character–for me they are very flat and not quite true?? Unlike Lawrence he doesn't try to *think* like woman–so everything is from a male point of view.

She (Mrs. Macomber) like the wounded lion and buffalo will charge intending to kill when cornered, and she is certainly cornered and retaliates in an effective way . . .

I first read this book when I was 17 (1949) and on the fringes of a similar group in Brighton, the most marked difference being their lack of money.

My involvement began quite simply by being picked up . . .

7. M. Torbe, *"Modes of Response"* in **English in Education**, Vol.8, No.2.

It seems strange that rereading a book should start me writing at such lengths—haven't thought about the members of the crowd for a long time and never visit the old haunts when in Brighton—it all belongs to another life.

Have been very surprised—Hemingway is so enthusiastic about mountains and writes so many beautiful descriptions of scenery that I expected him to do so in 'The Flight of the Refugees' (in By-line). He covers such beautiful country with really magnificent scenery that I know well and always react to—and never mentions it. But then the people were the important things there—doesn't this contradict what he was getting at in **The Sun Also Rises**, that whatever happens to people the earth carries on and triumphs?

I particularly liked the episode in the mountains when Jake and Bill Gorton are fishing in the Burguete. It is reminiscent again of the raft in the middle of the river with Huck and Jim cut off from all that is distasteful—civilisation—there is comradeship—all male.

Now we could talk for a long time about this piece of writing but I agree with Torbe when he writes on the last paragraph:– "there is an interaction between her reading and her reminiscence which synthesises personal retrospection and literary response."

One could quite easily argue that it is a valuable piece of writing for the student to attempt and the teacher to receive. I gave my own Diploma students this piece of writing for discussion and it is difficult to state exactly the reactions in a lengthy and sometimes heated discussion but many students rejected the piece for being unnecessarily personal while others who were more generously disposed to it felt insecure with it. Now it was only one session but just as I believe in our English lessons with children we start from their response and build from them, so here it seems there is an important problem facing these future English teachers which needs to be explored. What kind of work can we provide for them? I have only questions at the moment.

(a) What actually happens when we read a poem?

(b) What is the difference between an incorrect and insufficient response? How are insufficient responses useful?

(c) How do we cope with the rejoinder "It's all a matter of opinion"?

(d) What do we mean by irrelevant associations?

(e) When is it useful to call for an essay as a form of response?

(f) What other forms can literary response take?

Once again we do not want to pose these as theoretical questions. What kinds of material and what kinds of activities can we call on that will help us explore these questions? Perhaps we are particularly looking for activities where the students are placed in positions to analyse the processes they go through in responding to art.

(3) This then takes us to the third principle, "the principle of concentrating on process rather than product". This is some work

(lasting about 15 hours) which I carried out with Diploma of Education graduates.

There were five weeks, three hours each week, one two-hour session and one session of one hour. The material used was a number of drama scripts – short scenes from Shakespeare, Pinter, Eliot. There were two issues I wanted to raise in the work:

(a) To illustrate how drama scripts could be used for performance and not just for sedentary reading or literary study. To do this I led the class in working on each scene, insisting that discussion would arise out of performance. So here I wanted to give the students some very practical help on how to use plays in class, arguing that my approach to the scripts would be very similar if I were working with a group of 15 year olds.[8]

(b) But there was a second problem I wanted to explore and I mentioned the problem in each session. Some of our previous work in the course had been examining how early confident opinion, judgment and evaluation can be hostile to developing a genuine and worthwhile literary response. Transcripts of students and pupils talking about literature had been studied and note taken of how people in discussion can talk their way into meaning, the transcripts showing ideas in the process of formulation, first tentative, undistinguished ideas being the starting point for more interesting and more perceptive reflection. We had discussed how group discussion can be a valuable means of carrying forward successive steps in formulating crisper ideas. James Britton's chapter "Talking to Learn" in **Language, Learner and the School** had been a key reference in this work. The following paragraph was considered important in examining the kind of discussion: "In such situations each speaker is, as it were, a catalyst to the others. There is a kind of leap-frog that goes on: each speaker will alternate speech with silence. In listening to the others further speech is generated: in other words, in the silences themselves is the possibility of discovery, of learning, in a way that may not happen when we muse in silence alone. For what one person says may spark off discovery in another, and that, once embodied in further speech, may form a starting point for somebody else. Together the group is doing more than they could do singly".

Now I was arguing that if we were to have any conviction about "workshop English", and by this stage we should be convinced that much of our work should be in the form of workshops, we have to have some insight into and experience of what Britton is writing about. The drama sessions were attempts to put the students in the situation of shared exploratory learning – that their attempts to work on the scenes would be tentative and stumbling but that insights into the problems raised would be sharpened by untidy but thoughtful discussion.

8. I have described how I used the same scripts and approach with a group of 15 year olds in Ken Watson's book **English in Secondary Schools**. An interesting comparison could be made between the responses of these children writing on the opening scene of Hamlet and the response by the graduates.

For each two-hour session four observers were asked not to participate but to note the process of literary response and group discussion. In the one-hour session they were to lead the discussion.

At the end of the unit of work I asked the students to write on the success and value (or lack of it) of the work we had done. The great majority found the work very valuable because it had given them a very useful, practical way of approaching scripts. None of the students in their replies commented at all on the second problem we had been exploring.

Now this is a very loose experiment and it would be idle pessimism to be too gloomy about the result. After all just because the students did not mention any interest in this important aspect of the work does not mean they were not influenced in some way. However there is room for some disquiet that these young and in many cases idealistic young teachers showed little interest in an idea that could radically change their attitudes to teaching and learning.

So the examples of courses described in this paper perhaps do little more than raise some interesting questions. But they are not just academic questions. The working party accepted a statement proposed by four of the members, a statement which heads this paper – "In our opinion what is learnt from a course in English in Teacher Education must be 'Action Knowledge' rather than 'School Knowledge'. The ways we teach our students and the content of our courses will be reflected in the ways they teach their pupils". It seems to me that the principles proposed and the courses described here, with their failures, the questions raised, their small successes go some way to making that ideal a reality.

LANGUAGE AND LEARNING: THE NEED FOR A NEW APPRAISAL

David Horner and Peter Moss

We want to make it clear that these remarks are not made in criticism of the Conference. However, we do want to make points about some linguistic and educational blind spots in the conference discussions.

We did not come to terms with Barnes' useful distinctions between the processes of 'Reproduction' and 'Regeneration' in Education, and the allied notions of 'school knowledge' and 'action knowledge'. In our limping pursuit of the topic of action knowledge and its consequences we virtually ignored 'content' in Education, even at the most general level. It is just not good enough (nor sensible, nor rational) to argue, "if you've got a Regeneration approach it doesn't matter what content you operate upon". All knowledge can be one or the other kind, it depends on how the learner is allowed to use it e.g. you can teach/learn about a particular theory for its own sake (school knowledge) or you can teach/learn about it in order to use it to create new knowledge or to re-interpret old knowledge (action knowledge). This conscious selection of an approach to teaching and learning is a political decision and it is therefore naive to divorce from discussion of the educational process its specific content at any level.[1] It is also naive to ignore the fact that school knowledges are the bases upon which teachers create and develop cognitive interactions in their students, and it is these which produce significant knowledge for the individual.

But the biggest gap in our deliberations was to ignore that teaching and learning take place in specific (school) and general (society) contexts. Many schools symmetrically reflect our society (what else can they do?) in that they offer functional models of learning to their students. These proceed upon an industrial metaphor, emphasising product. In such contexts action knowledge can easily become 'industrial' knowledge, strategies used merely to enable the student to function better. Language and Education, and certainly the conference, have not yet perceived the missing dimensions. Broadly, we believe that these are detailed in Ethnographic Studies of Language and interaction.

The work of James Britton, Douglas Barnes, Nancy Martin et. al. dominated our thinking about language and learning. It seemed as

1. We use the term 'content' in a broad sense to include attitudes, skills and abilities as well as 'knowledge about'.

though the conference had adopted this linguistic orientation as the best (or only?) one. It was never acknowledged that this body of work consists basically of random pieces of intuitive sociolinguistics and that its appeal is its accessibility. But it is only a part of the whole (and derives from other parts of the whole e.g. Harding, Moffett, Hymes, Sapir, Gumperz). Recent Sociolinguistic reviews, including those by Dittmar (1975), Wölk (1977) and Grimshaw (1973) reveal the wide range of emphasis and problems, many of which relate to educational issues. While recognising the value of the 'London' work in stimulating teachers to re-think their attitudes towards student language, we believe that there is a precise danger of this orientation becoming received doctrine in Australia. This would be a pity both for the future progress of English teaching and for the work itself, since nobody imagines that they have made their final, completed contributions to educational thought. We should all mark Ervin-Tripp's (1973) observation, when discussing variation in children's speech, that we lack evidence about what children perceive and process when exposed to language variation. The London model may not account for all cases and all settings.

In any case it should be pointed out that a general language and learning theory is only one of the concerns of 'English in Teacher Education'. People with our backgrounds may also be involved with such matters as multi-cultural/multi-lingual programmes; various forms of 'compensatory education'; curriculum design; the teaching of reading. To be able to accommodate this range, and more, we shall need much more than a general account of language functions. Charles Fillmore (1972), put the problem and the scope most trenchantly and we cannot better it:

> The central theoretical problem as I see it, is that of determining how to capture the ability of a person to know his language. I find it helpful to conceive to the total theory of linguistic abilities as a very specialized branch of Incarnation Theory. Suppose we assume that some minor god wishes to cross the line, wishes to pass as a member of the human community. It has the standard Divine Sensorium by which it is able to perceive in any instant all of space and time, it is able to assume any form or to occupy and control any existing creature, but it needs to be told how to talk and what constraints it needs to impose on its unlimited potential in order not to give away its divine origin. It will need to acquire the local grammar, or maybe more than one local grammar, and a large portion of the lexicon of that language or those languages. It will need to identify itself as a member of the community with respect to age, sex, family position, social status, educational background, occupation, geographical origins, etc.; and it will need to equip itself with a fairly coherent set of opinions about the world and a set of affective preferences, together with a strategy for changing these,

though this last is not necessary for an adult. It will need to be able to perceive among its interlocutors whether they are people it is supposed to know, how its biography is shared with theirs, if and how they are related to it, and so on. It will need to notice what sorts of social occasions it finds itself in or what sorts of social settings its own action has put it in. It will need to know what linguistic conventions and routines govern conversation on these occasions, what it and its interlocutors are expected to accomplish with each contribution to the conversation, when it can appropriately talk at all and when it should remain silent. And it will apparently need to know how to vary its speech from time to time and how past decisions to vary its speech in one respect might require it to vary its speech in some other respect more often or less often so that certain proportions come out right.

This is an enormous undertaking, as you see – and even at that I have said nothing about what it will need to know about how people perceive the world in order for it to acquire the semantics of the system – but it all seems to be part of the job.

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LANGUAGE AND LEARNING: THE NEED FOR A MULTI-CULTURAL PERSPECTIVE

Joan Rothery

Language courses in teacher education programmes must be developed to meet the needs of the multi-cultural school community. In schools throughout Australia, particularly in urban areas, there are large numbers of children whose mother tongue is not English. In addition there are English speakers whose language varies from the standard variety used in school learning situations. Thus, language courses, developed with a framework of exploring language in use, must focus on the particular needs of the second language speaker as well as those of the native speaker of English.

Our schools have taken for granted that, when native speakers commence school, they are already able to use language to participate in the every day activities of family and neighbourhood. Our school curriculums have been developed on the assumption that all learners are linguistically able to participate effectively in teaching-learning situations. We cannot continue to make such assumptions about all pupils.

Although, in schools, we are particularly concerned with children using language to learn, we must take a broader view of the role of language in the community when we are teaching children for whom English is a second language. English, in our society, is the main language of public communication, of government agencies, commerce and media. We must ensure that all speakers of English can engage in dialogue for personal communication, to obtain goods and services available in the community and to participate effectively in community affairs.

The impetus to learn the mother tongue comes from the child's realization of the functions it serves him. He uses it constantly in situations of purpose. Learning a second language is not the same as learning a first language but this must still take place in situations of purpose for the learner. Learning English in isolation from the rest of the school curriculum does not meet this criterion. If teachers are to assist second language learners more effectively then all teachers need to undertake courses which explore the theme of **Language, Community and School**. The following areas are some which would need to be investigated using the methods suggested in the paper, **Language and Learning in Teacher Education: Theory and Practice. Part One.**

Language, Community and School.

1. The functions of language.
2. Learning the mother tongue.
3. Learning a second language.
4. The English language system.
5. Language variation.
6. The languages and cultures of Australian Aborigines and Australian migrants. (This study would not include learning these languages, but noting linguistic features in different languages pertinent to teaching and learning English as a second language.)
7. Literature for the multicultural classroom. (We need to include literature written in the mother tongue, literature translated from the mother tongue into English and Australian literature.)

LANGUAGE AND LEARNING: THE NEED FOR A NEW OFFENSIVE

Tom Dobinson

Britton, Barnes, Bullock, et al have tried to raise teachers' awareness of the power of language in the classroom, both as a means of expression and as a structural element in the learning process. In the view of the Bullock Report, so crucial is the language of the classroom to learning in all subjects, that it states the need for

> "an organised policy for language across the curriculum in every school, establishing every teacher's involvement in language and reading development."

This language across the curriculum concept is seen, both as a challenge and a threat. A challenge to implement what is a policy and not a curriculum, a challenge to placate and persuade those threatened teachers of disciplines other than English that language across the curriculum is neither the new heresy nor the new imperialism of the English teacher.

I contend that even though Britton, Barnes et al are now sufficiently established to be under some attack, there is no going back to the Golden Age of A.C.E.S. No teacher, English or otherwise can return to the Camelot perfection of the past, because, at present, sound classroom practice in all subjects is based, implicitly if not explicitly on the heightened awareness of the nature, significance and power of language in the classroom.

I feel that English teachers (and that means teachers of English teachers, as well as bureaucrats of English teachers) should go on the offensive. For example, when the Science teacher accuses us of not teaching the language of that subject, we should offer to return to the techniques of the old days, if he or she will. We will give dummy-runs in grammar, if he demonstrates experiments from the front bench and then dictates the required, rather than the observed, result. We will refrain from group discussion lessons if the Science teacher refrains from A.S.E.P. units, we will not go to the theatre if he doesn't go on ecological excursions. We will set a comprehension passage every week if he sets two pages of chemical equations or physics problems.

Similar offers could be made to other teachers. We won't experiment with film making, if the art teacher leaves the sculpture court and returns to still life in the classroom, we will try to teach drama without acting if the Social Science teacher tries to use inquiry

methods with five periods of silent classrooms, we will teach the novel by chapter summaries and plot dissection, if the mathematics teacher expounds games theory with a one sentence definition, an exemplary equation and twenty-one examples for homework.

It is my belief that one of the tasks for teacher educators is to provide English teachers with some rigorous logic in the defence of 'language' in the new English, not merely for survival, but because we believe that better language means better learning.

Although time, practice and research may modify the position and the claims of Britton *et al.*, the current emphasis on language and language across the curriculum is a magnificent opportunity for us to increase the consciousness of the importance of language to learning and to life.

WORKING PAPER 3

LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

John Collerson

The following statement is a tentative one arising from several hours' discussion, thinking, and writing by Working Party 3. Not everyone agrees with every point made, though there was agreement on the general position adopted.

Introduction

The group set itself the questions "What is the place of language and literature in the preparation of teachers, and how are they related in this context?" We worked by considering some of our assumptions, aims and desirable approaches in teacher education in language and literature. Our emphasis centred on the place of literature specifically, because while the case for language has been strongly argued in recent years, the position of literature was felt to have been undervalued in teacher education. We then considered approaches to literature in college courses, and concluded with two implications for colleges and universities offering teacher education courses.

Our central focus is on the concept of making meanings. Our concern is that prospective teachers should be encouraged to develop their own capacity to make meanings, to expand their own networks of understanding of themselves and the world through the reading of literature and the use of language in other modes, such as in speaking and writing. At the same time, they should be developing their own capacity for enjoyment and love of reading, writing, and oral language so that their readiness to gain experience of making meanings in these ways will lead to their increased capacity to do so. Furthermore, they should develop the ability to help their own pupils to make meanings.

Assumptions and Beliefs

Literature is a language experience and language is the medium of literature. Yet language is wider than literature and literature reaches beyond language.

Language is in use in all our talking, listening, reading and writing. The important concerns of language include the nature of language, its acquisition from infancy to young adulthood in the mother tongue speaker and of English as a second language, its functions, variations, role in learning, exploration and enjoyment. Each teacher needs to

facilitate the child's development in using all functions of his language. We believe the teacher must develop a knowledgeable and sympathetic understanding of his pupil's language, both spoken and written, and of ways to extend it. The teacher also needs awareness of variations in use in the different dialect networks in Australian society, and of variations for different situations and purposes.

We hold important the teacher's ability to use language in all its modes with confidence, competence, and responsibility. We stress this in his ability to write confidently and competently, an aspect often neglected though writing is a major responsibility in his teaching.

Further in developing an understanding of how writers make meanings, we hold that the students' own imaginative writing is of crucial importance, and that students should have opportunity to develop their writing. They need, too, to reflect on and share with each other the process of their own development in writing.

Literature has both oral and written forms. In oral literature we stress the importance of story-telling and reading aloud, the importance of the oral experience of poetry, as well as the mediated literature of record, radio, film and tape. Practical involvement in all these modes, and recognition of the role of the child's anecdotes and story-telling, should be encouraged in teacher education courses.

Literature encompasses a wide range of speech and writing, not only what is traditionally thought of as "the best". The current literature of, for instance, the media, technology, journalism, the student's writing, and pupil's writing should also be considered.

The importance of Children's Literature in both secondary and primary courses, and of Australian literature courses was emphasised. Both areas are often neglected or offered only as electives. Australian literature including poetry, short story, the novel, prose, drama and children's literature is an area which teacher educators must be more willing to explore. It is both accessible and richly rewarding.

Literature is a vital component of teacher education. The experience of literature serves the imaginative, intellectual, and emotional development of the teacher. We advocate a rich experience of short stories, novels, poetry and plays, and of children's literature. Direct experience of drama through movement, improvisation, script and child drama should also be encouraged as part of the wider experience of literature for the student teacher.

The teacher must be able to encourage his pupils to develop their own love of reading and involvement in it. The ability to encourage a love of reading involves a sensitivity to pupil's needs and responses, and an awareness of literature's value to the reader's understanding of himself and his world. It implies a teacher well-read in novels, poetry and stories able to offer wide and individualised reading programmes, as well as select appropriately for shared class experience.

To sum up: What kind of teacher would we like our students to become? They would be teachers with:

1. a rich past experience of books, poems, plays and other

genres, including experience of theatre (if possible through participation) and children's literature.

2. a love of reading and the ability to encourage their pupils to develop their own love of reading.
3. a sensitivity to the needs and responses of their pupils.
4. an awareness of the values of literature for the reader's understanding of himself and his world.
5. an understanding of the nature of language, its functions, uses and variety and its role in learning.
6. a sympathetic understanding of their pupils' language and an understanding of the ways in which children's language develops.
7. an ability to use language in all its modes with competence, confidence and responsibility and especially the ability to write.
8. an understanding of how to develop their pupils' ability to use language to make meanings.

Concerning Approaches to Literature Teaching in Colleges:

In determining approaches to literature colleges should understand the particular needs of schools, and approaches to literature used in English classrooms. Such approaches should be used in college courses. Students should be encouraged to respond to the writer's intention and perspective, and encourage pupils to share their own feelings and responses. Meeting writers, telling about them too, can be part of developing this awareness.

In the approaches taken, students need to realize that there is no single "right" response to a piece of literature, that their own thoughtful responses are as valuable as those of another person. They also need to discover how the writing itself controls the range of reader's responses and interpretation in conjunction with the individual understanding which the reader brings from his own experience.

In literature courses the students must be engaged in penetrating the surface of the text to perceive the textual qualities beyond the storyline, and how they function in making the writer's meaning. They must also be able to identify the reading abilities and skills needed for such perceptive reading, and learn ways they can in turn develop them in their pupils. Frequent experience in close discussion, for example, of key passages of a novel and crucial lines of a play or poem, would be important in achieving this.

The approaches taken in teacher education courses should enable the new teacher, in working with a piece of new literature with his pupils:

– to go to them thoroughly conversant with and responsive to

that literature,

- to be receptive and responsive to what his pupils have to say,
- to have a wide range of approaches for working with their classes and to see how a particular piece of literature suggests its own possibilities in ways to work with it,
- to be aware of techniques of elucidation and to choose the appropriate approaches for that piece of literature,
- to be explicit about the way he has gone about it,
- to help pupils to fit the experience of that literature into their own schemata of the world, as this is what making meanings entails.

Two Further Implications for Teacher Education:

1. Teacher educators need to re-examine the assumptions they make about the reading maturity, abilities, and experience of reading of their incoming students. Courses scanned often seemed to be influenced by traditional academic courses in the universities for the different purposes of a Bachelor of Arts degree, and by courses offered for matriculation examination in the final year of High School. In terms of the range of language and literature experience that we have indicated in this report, teacher educators should think freshly and independently of those influences, to take realistic consideration of the particular students in their course, and to design courses (both in content and way of working) in terms of those particular students' needs and their preparation for teaching.
2. Of concern is the Cinderella place of literature, including Children's Literature and student writing, in the colleges across Australia. Literature in the broader understanding that we have outlined is a vital component in teacher preparation. It can no longer be relegated to half-unit courses, or find its concerns placed only among electives as is often the case at present. To grow in literature, in writing, in making meanings, needs time and as extensive and richly varied experience as we can possibly give.

LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE: POINTS FOR FURTHER DISCUSSION

Graham Boardman and Stuart Lee

While it is very difficult to see the subject "English" as a whole there are some obvious things which need to be reiterated.

1. *Language* and *Literature* must not be seen as separate disciplines within English, any more than Film-making or Media studies are separate disciplines within English.
2. English should not be seen as a skill building subject for work in the content fields. These skills should be acquired in the context of learning i.e. report writing in the laboratory, etc.
3. In lessons labelled "English" reading and writing skills should be acquired in the process of making meaning either in response to works of literature (broadly defined) or in students making their own "literature".
4. We should also like to make the following point quite strongly – that the "language across the curriculum" notion omits any reference to the fact that English, like Art and Music, involves the imagination and the emotions, not merely cognitive development. Pushed to its limits, this point also implies that there is in English an element – call it "enjoyment", "aesthetic response" or what you will – an element which goes beyond the making of meaning to pleasure in a work of art.

THE TEACHER AS COMMUNICATOR

Les Cartwright

An issue that I feel was not adequately represented at the conference was that of *the teacher as communicator.* Regardless of his pedagogical standpoint a teacher is primarily a communicator. As such he needs to be aware not only of the communication climate and structures in which he is working, but also what he is like himself as a communicator, and the implications that this has for the learning which he generates.

It is disturbing that despite the entreaties of classroom teachers, courses in most tertiary institutions tend to ignore the need for a sound understanding and practical experience in this area.

What could be learned? The following are what I would consider to be some influential factors in learning about communication:

Image: what constitutes an image; how it evolves; how it is projected.
Communication in small groups / Communication in large groups: the verbal and non-verbal signals, controls, and gauges against which one measures oneself in these settings.
Discussion: the nature of discussion and talk in small groups; the experience of it; the organisation, structure and control of small group learning.
Voice and effective use of the voice.
Speech, that is fluent and clear.
Real competence in the interpretation and communication of literature, through: – reading aloud, – speaking poetry (and "exploring" it out loud) – dramatic reading and acting.

[N.B. These "factors" apply equally to all teachers – not just English specialists. With our rich language heritage surely we are all bounden to regenerate language through a sensitive and vital use of it?]

I want to emphasize that I have no wish to re-centre learning on the teacher: this is healthy for neither teacher nor student. But I do believe that the teacher who lacks a knowledge of what communication is, and who cannot communicate effectively himself, will be very restricted in the sorts of learning that both he and his students engage in.

READING AND ACCOUNTABILITY

Graeme Baker

Robert Chester's paper deserves due attention in so far as it seeks to stimulate professional interest in the question of accountability in the important area of reading. But the paper raises several questions for which the excuse, reason or fear of being held accountable is no adequate answer.

The definition of reading which emerges appears to be something closer to 'wording', since the 'ability to deal with words' is of prime concern. Within the areas of skills development and testing or 'functional reading', words, either in the form of word lists or words listed horizontally as 'connected text', predominate. This prompts the first question:

Given that words derive their particular meaning from the context in which they are found, why has no consideration been given to those aspects of reading which are necessarily concerned with meaning – either as that presented by the writer or as that taken by the reader?

Reading in the infant/primary school is seen as 'an end in itself', a closed task in which certain skills (e.g. decoding) are to be emphasized over others (e.g. reading for information). But *how* the child is taught his basic skills will not only affect how he uses them but will also modify the image he will grow into of himself as a learner. So it must be asked:

What if the child does not learn these basic skills because they are devoid of any meaning for him? How can reading (i.e. 'wording') be taught without any 'adverse effects' upon the learner's view of himself and upon his view of the reading process? And what lies hidden in the term 'successful teachers' in this context?

But what are *the* basic skills? At first, it is suggested that there is reasonable agreement as to the 'definition and identification of skills', for the development of which the infant/primary school might well consider itself reasonably accountable. However, reference is later made to the lack of any 'empirically derived and validated set of essential skills in reading' due, we are told, to insufficient in-depth analysis of the reading task. The question is:

How is this apparent contradiction to be resolved and why have the insights of the miscue analysts not been taken into account when consideration is being given to what constitutes essential reading skills?

If we are not quite sure what is basic to successful reading (and

some of us are more optimistic than Robert) it seems gratuitous to talk of reading in terms of 'absolute standards', 'production and output' or 'ultimate' measures as if one was describing a finely-wrought piece of precision engineering. No one wants to see children excluded, in part or full, from all the purposes and pleasures of reading because of inadequately developed skills, but this paper is an example of what is criticised in these, the final questions:

Is there not a danger of over-reacting to the various notions of accountability and thereby recommending poor methodology when, for instance, what might be called for is better public relations between the school and society?

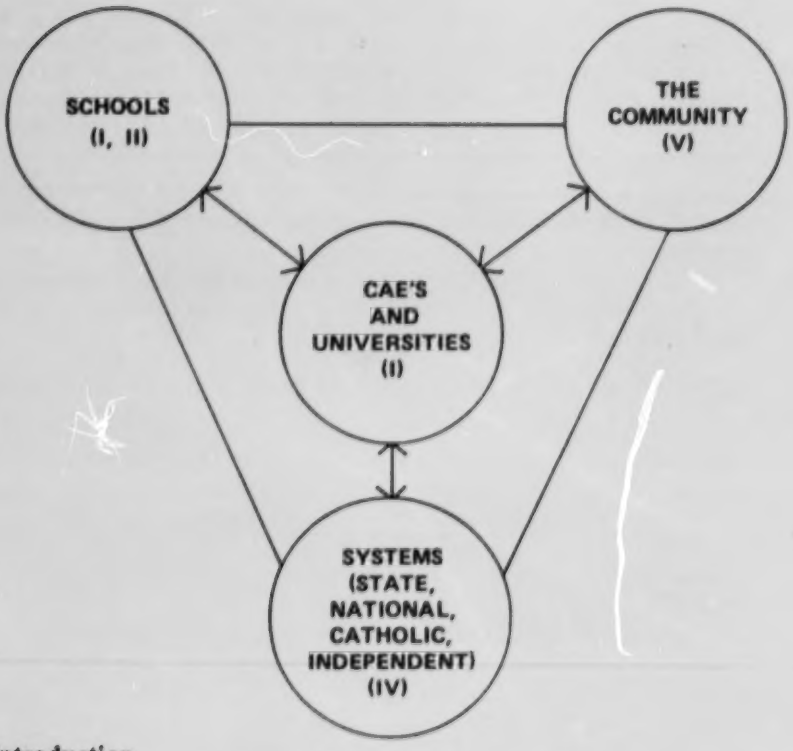
Parents naturally have a right to know how their child is progressing but would it not be paradoxical if their pressure, among others, blinded us into adopting procedures which, despite surface appearances, did not help their child progress far, or in the right direction, because we did not take into account what reading meant for their child or how, from the earliest possible moment, we might help him extend his experiences by sharing those of the authors we read to him or give him to read?

Is 'wording' the only approach to the teaching of reading we can recommend in response to the challenge of accountability?

WORKING PAPER 4

MODELS OF COLLABORATION

Garth Boomer



Introduction

This party based its work on the assumption that the development of language and English in C.A.E.'s and Universities cannot be considered in isolation from other faculties within these institutions and that the development of tertiary institutions cannot be considered apart from society itself. For the purposes of this paper the interdependence of four main groups will be investigated in order to establish some models for possible collaboration. The diagram above shows the C.A.E.

and University in relationship with Schools, The Community and the Education Systems. The first section of this report deals with collaboration within and across tertiary institutions. Sections II and III deal with the School and the Tertiary Institutions as collaborators in pre-service and in-service education. Section IV examines the tertiary institution in relationship with the various state and national systems. Section V discusses the tertiary institution and the wider community.

While the specific focus is on the role of language and English in teacher education, what follows has general applicability.

Members of the group identified four major reasons for collaboration:

1. There is a strong tendency for personnel in Schools, C.A.E.'s, Universities and Systems to be "locked in" with little possibility of job mobility and exchange which would allow them to develop broader and deeper understandings of interdependent groups.
2. There is a need to rationalize and co-ordinate efforts to promote improved quality of language and learning at all levels.
3. There is a need to share resources, both personal and material, across institutions and between institutions and the wider community.
4. There is a need for C.A.E.'s, Systems, Schools and The Community to communicate their concerns so that common problems can be met with a united effort.

I. COLLABORATION WITH AND ACROSS C.A.E.'S AND UNIVERSITIES

Introduction

Opportunities for collaboration *within* tertiary institutions obviously exist. It is a measure of the present fragmentation that they need to be stated here.

Some Models

1. There are existing models which have been successful, eg., in Canberra C.A.E. the School of Teacher Education has no departments, but operates through task-oriented committees.
2. The same institution has established a Centre for the Study of Language in Learning which draws its membership from teachers of curriculum studies, English, journalism, linguistics and other "disciplines" which have interests in the area.
3. The Teaching and Learning Unit at Rusden S.C.V. works on the assumption that there is little value in offering courses in educational theory divorced from the reality of children and classroom. Lecturers have therefore decided to work as a team, integrating the separate traditional disciplines of a Dip. Ed. course

by tying all their teaching and lecturing to the students' own observations and experiences in field work. All lectures are attended by the staff in the team and lectures are followed up with small group seminars.

4. At the university level there is the example of the University of Adelaide where English Education and English have a collaborative degree.

5. In Adelaide, tertiary lecturers in the area of language, linguistics and English have established an informal network to promote sharing and communication. At house meetings from time to time one person delivers a short paper on a topic of interest. This is followed by discussion. The possibility of a post-graduate course taught collaboratively by lecturers across institutions has been mooted.

General Comments

1. We would urge that at an informal level more collaboration for the establishment of ongoing seminars on language and learning problems specific to the institution should take place.

2. In order to give sharper focus, interested and specialist colleagues from other institutions could be invited to share new insights and to offer new models for course design.

3. We recognize that a barrier to formal collaboration exists in the autonomous qualification-centred nature of university work. A functional division exists at present between C.A.E.'s and universities. We see both functions as having value. We urge nevertheless that this impediment to formal collaboration should not be used to justify failure to develop informal collaboration.

II. COLLABORATION WITH SCHOOLS IN PRE-SERVICE EDUCATION

Introduction

Some Current Models for Practice Teaching and Their Limitations

Among the models for practice teaching currently in vogue, there are two predominant kinds of relationships between school and "training" institutions. The first is based on the premise that relations between the two institutions will be most cordial and/or fruitful when a C.A.E./University lecturer regularly visits the same one or two schools.

The second is based on the premise that practice teaching in English (for argument's sake) will be more beneficial from the students' viewpoint if the C.A.E./University lecturer who supervises them is the person who teaches English Curriculum Studies in the College. These models are further complicated by the possibility of choosing block practice or day release practice. This option is available for either of the

two relationship patterns mentioned above. Hence there are 2 x 2 = 4 models currently in vogue.

All of the above have severe limitations. In the first model the lecturer who identifies with the 1 or 2 schools cannot then identify with all of his students. He may indeed supervise only a small proportion of those students who take his curriculum studies courses. In the second model, the lecturer who visits only his own students generally fails to build meaningful relationships with the schools and their supervisory teachers, for the simple reason that there are too many schools to be visited. The college lecturer's fleeting visits are generally regarded with extreme suspicion by the school staff, and not infrequently the student teacher also.

To overcome these problems, and especially the glaring failure of current models of practice teaching to properly use the resources of both schools and colleges, alternative models must be found.

Four Alternative Models.

1. *Classes Coming Into the College*

   A model that presents itself for consideration where schools are situated within close proximity to C.A.E.'s or Universities is that which brings the class and its regular teacher into the college, which then becomes a resource centre for the school. Reciprocally, of course, the class and its teacher provide a valuable learning resource for the college lecturer and his students. There are many variations, no doubt, on this theme, but a typical pattern of activities within this model is described as follows.

   (a) College lecturer consults school to determine which college resources are most useful to the school. (eg., if school has need to develop drama teaching, college offers its drama studio as venue for school classes and its students as participants along with the school pupils. College lecturer takes class on some occasions, regular class teacher on others.) At times, students take small segments of the work.

   (b) Class teacher confers with College lecturer to decide on joint programme. The needs of the pupils, possible ways of meeting them, learning experiences, etc., are discussed at this point.

   (c) Classes come into the College and engage in activities planned as above. Students work with school pupils in small groups, and each student attaches himself to a group of 3-4 pupils and works through the learning activities suggested by either college lecturer or class teacher alongside (and together with) the pupils. Alternatively student takes part of lesson.

   (d) When the session finishes, pupils return to the school. College lecturer and students (with or without regular class teacher –

but preferably with) formulate theory from their practice. In discussion, they work through to an understanding of the learning process they have just been watching and taking part in.

Such a pattern is already in operation in some Colleges of Education in England. Salisbury C.A.E. in South Australia has a "laboratory" school on campus. There are pre-conditions for its successful operation, not the least of which is the need to have half a day in the student's timetable devoted to the one curriculum area. Another is the proximity of the two institutions. Most important of all is mutual trust between college lecturers, class teachers and school principal. Clearly this model of practice teaching could not be institutionalised at a single stroke. It relies on individual initiatives coming from school staff members and college staff members.

Advantages

Within these constraints however, the model does provide greater opportunities for collaboration and co-operation between schools and C.A.E.'s than have existed to date. It places the resources of the C.A.E.'s more freely at the disposal of the school, and allows a reciprocal access for the college to the resources of the school (namely its pupils – its teachers). It provides a non-threatening climate for pupil-student interaction; students are far more likely to make their own meanings (turn "school knowledge" into "action knowledge") than in the traditional practice teaching situations. Finally, the model permits open observation of teaching-learning processes without setting up the awkward artificiality of the dreaded "demonstration lesson".

2. *Student Teaching Centres in School Based Training Programmes*

Background

The assumption (unsupported by research) of field based pre-service training is that the enterprise of initial training works best when the triad (student teachers, supervising teachers and college (University) lecturers) work *together* in the physical plant of the training school.

Before the proposition can work a number of people have to be disabused of a number of role expectations. What we are after is the building of a supportive community of concerned professionals who are:

(a) comfortable with one another,

(b) committed to building a learning community, and

(c) capable of admitting mistakes, uncertainties and prejudices.

There can be no *pro forma* since each student teaching centre will, if it is going to work, establish a unique, dynamic personal quality.

What is wrong with the traditional pattern is that professional (method) courses are "taught" in a College/University setting away from the fluid, linguistic realities of day-to-day classrooms. It simply means that theory and practice become organic when both involve "action" on the part of the student teacher, sponsor, lecturer and the school pupils.

Differences Between the *(A)* TRADITIONAL PRACTICE TEACHING MODEL and the *(B)* STUDENT TEACHING CENTRE

Advantages of *(B)* over *(A)*

1. Every attempt is made to evaluate the subject matter of professional courses with actual classroom experience.
2. University/C.A.E. lecturers are in constant contact with real children. They even do some teaching and learning.
3. The idea of the school-based seminar (e.g. through the use of video) is that the student teacher, lecturer and supervising teacher apply *theory*, through the distancing mechanism of the seminar, to the *practice* of *recent, real teaching.*
4. The centre breaks the locked in relationship of one-to-one student-teacher/supervisor relationships.
5. The pool of accumulated experience and expertise of supervising teachers can be used in small group tutorial settings within the centre.
6. The centre becomes a co-operative arena for local action research with all parties having access to the talk and writing of large numbers of students. (In this sense the college or university lecturer is engaged in a different version of collaborative research, instead of being regarded as a difficult and unwelcome interloper.)
7. The physical reality of the centre makes possible a movement back to the University/College for the supervising teacher and even small groups of students.
8. The centre provides student teachers with the opportunity to grapple with the realities of the community systems in which the school is located. Hence, they become aware of the influence on the pupils they teach.
9. Supervising teachers are adequately *trained* for their task.

A Possible Planning Strategy

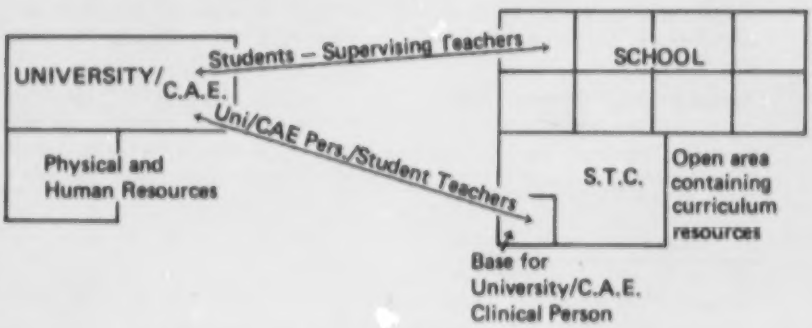
Organise a consortium or planning committee composed of:

School administration
Supervisory teacher representatives
University/College personnel

to:

1. Identify problems in planning and implementation.
2. Determine needs, interests and concerns to ensure setting up of realistic goals.
3. Suggest ways in which student teachers can get the most out of the field based programme without jeopardizing the welfare of pupils.
4. Promote community participation.
5. Ensure that adequate facilities and equipment are available.
6. Plan the programme (which involves answering such questions as how to tailor a set of experiences that are most likely to create individuals in the process of developing personal teaching styles).

What it looks like.



How it Might Work

1. In Phase A the student teachers bring a graduated series of experiences involving tutoring small groups of students using some of the theories discussed in the seminar. Also, they view protocol, materials, listen to audio tapes, get immersed in a flood of student writing and talking. In addition they get to know the community (through P & C meetings; studying the community itself through informal data gathering on the ethnic and social class make-up of the community). In the seminar these activities are discussed.
2. In Phase B the student teacher acts as Teacher's Aide. Experiences will include team teaching (either with supervising

teacher or another student teacher leading small group discussion); observing English teachers in a variety of settings (as well as teachers from other "disciplines"); constructing units of work; identifying and working on the "nuts and bolts" odd jobs (rolls, etc).

3. In Phase C the student teacher can be expected to assume full responsibility for classes. During this period there is intensive interaction in the Student Teaching Centre where the clinical C.A.E./University person, supervising teachers and student teachers pool resources. Right through the three phases the programme is individualized.

3. *The student becomes interdisciplinary, the supervising teacher swops places with the Uni/CAE lecturer, all work together: school based.*

A team of students, representing the core areas of the curriculum, go to a school to start or contribute to a general studies programme. The total school-based team consists of pupils, supervising teachers (ST), University/CAE lecturers (CL) and students. The students are given the responsibility of planning an extensive programme – up to two terms work of a class – on the understanding that they will carry it through to completion. STs and CLs teach alongside the students, but play the part the students ask them to.

Assumptions. Responsibility leads to high class work. Interdisciplinary work focuses attention on the whole of a pupil's school learning, and creates a working context for discussions on language and learning. Team work creates respect for other people's expertise.

Seminars review progress and plan new work. In addition, they consider questions posed by students.

Assumption. Students learn best when they investigate, with help, the questions they want to ask.

What questions arise?

Hows

How to work with children successfully?
How to plan sensible, relevant, important curriculum?
How to provide high class personal and material resources?
How to carry through a sequential programme?

Whats

What are the virtues of specialist/interdisciplinary studies?
What differences, intellectual and social, are there between children?
What makes a difference to the life chances of children?

Whys

Why should this school have the aims, structure and organisation it has?

Why am I, as student/teacher/person, successful with some children and not others?

The seminars are organised and run by the STs. The CLs become catalytic problem posers, paying careful attention to language and learning.

It has been tried. Results: promising.

Effects.

Outside the team

At Uni/CAE level, some antagonism, based on the notion that proper answers to the more theoretical questions above can only properly be reflected upon by experts in academic disciplines. At the school level, some mistrust at giving students such responsibilities.

Inside the team

STs and CLs suffer anxiety on all fronts. Students, after anxious and frustrating beginnings, as they learn to work with others and to plan integrated curriculum, make rapid progress in theoretical and practical knowledge. Many develop through this process a coherent personal view of education, which stands them firmly on their feet as first year teachers.

4. *The Travelling Resource Van*

A modified example of the above model is in operation in Western Australia. At Murdoch University, 9 vans have been equipped with resource materials (ie., video and audio equipment, duplicators, books, kits, etc.) A tutor travels with a team of students in each van. They are attached to a particular school for the practice teaching period (sometimes a block of 4 weeks, sometimes a few days).

The team prepares teaching programmes with principals and teachers on a co-operative basis. The resources of the van can be used for micro-teaching for small groups of pupils. (eg., for educational psychology research). Principals and/or teachers are involved in lectures for students.

Other Examples fo Collaboration

1. Many colleges now have an extraneous network of teacher tutors which involves practising teachers giving lectures and conducting tutorials with pre-service students.
2. Some institutions are offering to take over the teaching of a topic

in a particular class over a period of time. The C.A.E./University lecturer and student teachers thus allow the normal teachers to be released for their own in-service education or for some school-based action research.

3. Increasingly tertiary institutions are using school-developed materials, programmes and documentation as source material for their courses.
4. There are examples of lecturer, teacher and student teachers working collaboratively on school-based action research projects. Findings benefit the school but also serve to provide resource material for the student teachers' ongoing study.

III. COLLABORATION IN IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

Introduction

While teachers graduating from colleges should become progressively more competent in their understanding of the role of language in education, there will be a large community of teachers trained at an earlier time who will need courses to up-date their knowledge. C.A.E.'s and Universities will have a crucial part to play in such in-service activity. There will always be a need for the continuing development of teachers.

Formal Courses

There is a need for greater availability of substantial formal courses not only for the "upgrading teacher" but for the "B.A., Dip. Ed." Teacher, the Head of a Department, the Principals, and C.A.E. and University Personnel in the area of Language and Learning. There is a large body of existing knowledge which is not coming into action, but this is *not* the kind of knowledge that can be imparted at short one-five day conferences.

In particular there is a great need for post graduate work in Language and Learning and in Literature. If this is to happen there must be more release of people to teach and learn. (It may be that there can be no *more* release of teachers, but there could and should be *redistribution* and *redirection* of release time scholars to the language/learning area, as opposed to say, librarianship).

For example, C.A.E. resources are underutilized in terms of summer schools, staff exchanges with teachers and administrators, guest tutoring, secondments and joint appointments (to school and college). There is also a vital need for less formal interaction, but these need to be carefully provided for and deliberately *planned*.

Less Formal Strategies

1. Liaison with Probationers

C.A.E.'s ought to be able to accept responsibility for their

products and have opportunity to interact with probationers in their early years of teaching.

2. *C.A.E. and University Involvement in In-Service Courses.*

Because of the way that in-service work has been structured in this country, C.A.E.'s have had no initiatives in this matter. They have had to await requests from teachers. People who request in-service activity often seem unaware of the resources tertiary institutions could bring to the task. Tertiary personnel who do become involved, however, presently do this *on top of* their in-house teaching commitment. There needs to be rationalization to allow the *best* use of tertiary people in this work.

3. *Opening Up C.A.E. and University Resources*

C.A.E. Libraries and Resource Centres are generally not enough used by teachers and there is even competition where there should be sharing. Among such resources are video and sound equipment for 'micro-teaching" which could be very useful in in-service work for teachers wishing to reflect on their own practice. (Tapes could then in turn become teaching resources for pre-service education).

4. *School Based Teacher Development*

The School-based mode of in-service work is, for good reasons, increasingly favoured. C.A.E. and Univernity personnel are not as much available for such work as they ought to be. For instance, lecturer, teacher and student teacher can collaborate in curriculum development, action-research or language policy formulation, and evaluation of present practice. Conversely teachers and principals should be involved in evaluation and development of C.A.E. Programmes.

5. *Teacher Development Through Radio and Video*

There is great opportunity for teacher development through radio and television programmes as a preliminary to work at school or teacher centre level, aided by do-it-yourself in-service resources which can be used particularly effectively in remote centres. This could be most helpful for the beginning teacher to help ease the transition from C.A.E. to school. C.A.E. People should be involved with others concerned in the development of such programmes, eg., advisory teachers, consultants, seconded teachers, etc.

6. *Collaborative Research*

Understandably schools are resisting research projects which

they do not perceive as helping them directly. There are models of successful collaboration in research in which all parties benefit, eg., action research in reading problems in which teacher education students backed up by tutors offer a genuine service to schools and their pupils.

7. *Involving the Principal*

The Principal is a key person in curriculum and teacher development. C.A.E.'s are in a position to help Principals understand language and its role in learning, and Principals are in a special position to advise C.A.E.'s in their pre-service and in-service work.

8. *Publicizing Resources*

Publicity is needed about the kinds of contributions C.A.E.'s and Universities can make in the ways outlined above. That C.A.E.'s and Universities have a contribution to make should be recognized *in their staffing*, and orderly procedures should be established to have such work become a bona fide part of the tertiary institution's role.

IV. COLLABORATION WITH SYSTEMS (STATE, CATHOLIC, INDEPENDENT, AND NATIONAL)

Introduction

In any discussion of the contribution that education systems can make to any model of co-operation, it is important to realize that the systems referred to encompass the State Education systems and the other school systems operating within the various states such as the Catholic Education system and the Independent School system.

1. *The System and Release Time (Individual and Whole School)*

The systems have both a need and an obligation to co-operate in such areas as a more generous provision of release time, both for individual teachers, for research and study in language areas, and also for whole school staffs for school planning conferences and in-service functions.

2. *Incentives for Further Study*

Further it would seem desirable that systems build into their promotion structure incentives for teachers to pursue further C.A.E./University based study.

3. *Demography, Manpower and Morale*

The demographic composition of the population as a whole and the teaching service in particular pose problems for systems in terms of morale, professional challenge and teacher

mobility. Systems should look to the C.A.E./University to provide some of the answers in this area.

4. *Support of C.A.E./University Programme with a Language Emphasis*

   The use of system support of specific teacher education programmes, is a further example of co-operation, eg., in assuring that *language and learning* is prominent in all teacher education programmes. Approaches from tertiary institutions to systems seeking endorsement of language and learning courses are being met with strong systems support.

5. *Collaborative Evaluation and Advice*

   C.A.E.'s/Universities should use the various levels of the system, teachers, schools, Principals and administrators to assist in the development and evaluation of C.A.E./University courses.

6. *C.A.E./University Involvement in Curriculum*

   C.A.E.'s/Universities should be more aware of and actively involved in curriculum development with the systems.

7. *Co-operation with C.D.C., N.C.E.T., A.C.E.R., etc.*

   The large systems have the structures which could foster relationships with other parts of the educational world, eg., C.D.C., N.C.E.T., A.C.E.R., etc., to achieve on a state-wide as well as a national basis.

8. *National Meetings of Directors-General and Heads of C.A.E.'s and Universities.*

   It is important that educational leaders such as Directors-General of education should consider language in education at regular intervals as part of the agenda at their national meetings.

9. *A Language in Education Policy for the System*

   Systems, C.A.E.'s, Universities and schools need to develop a language in education policy and this should be well known to the community. Such whole system policy would need to encompass English as a second language, libraries, reading, aboriginal education and special education.

V. COLLABORATION WITH THE WIDER COMMUNITY

Introduction

Many community groups can help the educational institutions to reach groups whose contact with the educational community would not

otherwise exist. If these groups came to understand and be committed to promote the development of language in society, institutions might find support in place of the present uninformed criticism.

The Value of Contacts

Such bodies as church groups, political parties, trade unions, ethnic groups, community and social welfare agencies, service clubs etc., could prove invaluable contacts. As a result, educators in C.A.E.'s and Universities might become more aware of community needs, interests and aspirations and tailor their own courses to reflect these. Ethnic clubs, for example, can provide direct advice on the language needs of their members. Language activities and investigations carried out in co-operation with these bodies would help to ensure that tertiary courses were pertinent and relevant.

Some Possibilities

1. Committees of Trade Unions, educators in language, and publishers might meet to develop suitable textbooks for apprenticeship training.
2. Media campaigns might be mounted to promote public awareness of language.
3. Parent and community representatives might participate with teachers and lecturers in in-service courses and in the formulation of action research projects.
4. Ethnic groups, or the elderly, might tell stories, give accounts or provide materials which could then be turned into curriculum materials.
5. Meetings with relevant groups might be arranged to write guidelines, posters, handbooks on language for *parents*, parents-to-be, publishers, and employers.
6. Composite teams of community members, teachers, lecturers and administrators might collaborate to devise more effective selection of people for teacher training.

Contacting the Educational Community

1. In the educational community diverse groups exist whose effective functioning would benefit from the sense of direction which a co-ordinated policy on language and learning would provide.
2. Groups such as subject associates of teachers traditionally provide a major component of in-service to teachers in schools. Language and learning programmes can be devised in co-operation with these associations whilst encouraging interaction between individual subject associations.
3. Other bodies such as professional associations, W.E.A., teachers'

unions, adult education groups and T.A.F.E. reach wide community audiences. If they are helped to become aware of the central role of language in learning, their courses and activities can promote wide community acceptance of the central role of language in peoples' lives. C.A.E. and University lecturers will benefit from experiences gained through this greatly increased community interaction as participants in courses, as providers of resources and shared expertise, and by involving their students in the activities of these groups. Shared publications can also result from this, as resources are used more economically by a lessening of overlapping activities.

4. Such emphasis on language in education can focus the energies of these groups on the critical need to develop community literacy in the broadest sense. English in education specialists, through increased community involvement, can be used as valuable resources.

VI. LIKELY OUTCOMES FROM COLLABORATION

The working party considers that the more the various models of collaboration described above are implemented the more likely will be the following:

1. Improved levels of literacy
2. Improved quality of learning
3. Improved quality of teaching
4. More efficient use of resources (Personnel, buildings, and equipment)
5. More coherent and effective teacher development
6. Greater mobility of personnel
7. Greater community understanding of language in education

VII. SOME IMPLICATIONS

The working party was unanimously of the opinion that little will be accomplished unless formal structures for collaboration are set up within schools, C.A.E.'s, Universities, systems and the community. The following action seems necessary:

By TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS, SCHOOLS AND SYSTEMS

1. The formation of committees charged with developing a policy and long-term plans with regard to the role of language in education

By BOARDS OF ADVANCED EDUCATION

2. Investigation in each state of the possibility of mounting post-graduate courses in language in education, compositely taught by lecturers across institutions.

By C.A.E.'s, UNIVERSITIES, SCHOOLS AND SYSTEMS

3. Investigation and implementation of new models of practice teaching for teachers in training, where there will be closer collaboration between lecturers, teachers and student teachers.

By C.A.E.'s AND UNIVERSITIES

4. Investigation of models for bringing school classes and teachers into tertiary institutions.

By C.A.E.'s, UNIVERSITIES AND SYSTEMS.

5. Collaboration to provide more formal courses, including summer schools, in the area of language in education.

By C.A.E.'s AND UNIVERSITIES

6. Staffing of tertiary institutions which takes proper account of the essential in-service teacher development role of these institutions. (This would include provision for joint teacher/lecturer appointments).

By SYSTEMS

7. Development of priorities for release time scholarships for teachers which will ensure that a fair quota of scholars have opportunity to study in the area of language in education each year.

By GOVERNMENT

8. The establishment of a task force or standing committee to:
   (a) investigate the complex needs of society with regard to language development and
   (b) recommend to the Government (state or federal) an appropriate formal structure for co-ordinating initiatives in language in education.

   Such a structure would need to ensure communication across institutions and with the community. It would also need to ensure that the Ministry of Education has access to sound advice for future planning.

VIII. A RECOMMENDATION

Given the urgent need for collaboration and co-ordination of effort, the working party made the following recommendation:

"that this conference resolve to approach federal and state ministers of education urging them to set up

appropriate structure to promote collaboration and co-ordination in the area of language in education."

The recommendation was subsequently refined and modified at a plenary session and became one of the four resolutions passed by the conference.

STATEMENT

MODELS OF TEACHING AND LEARNING: SOME TERTIARY IMPLICATIONS

Peter Holloway

The theory of language and learning as developed by Britton, Barnes, Rosen *et al.*, urges that the exploratory/reflective approach should be central to all educational models. The impact of such a theory has been recognised most particularly at school, or pre-tertiary, level. I wish to consider the pedagogic implications which can be adduced for teacher education institutions – particularly those which prepare secondary teachers in an end-on structure, where the educational models generally comprise the mass lecture and the tutorial, and some or all assessment is by final, unseen examination. In other words, how compatible is the traditional 'university' model with such a theory?

It seems to me that acknowledgement and acceptance of such a learning theory has extremely powerful and far-reaching implications in at least the following five areas:

(i) **The educational models in which learning can best take place.** The one-way language traffic of mass lectures and many tutorials/seminars (especially where a paper is prepared and read by one student) must be seen to be less effective than the opportunities for exploration/reflection available to a model which comprises a group of 15-25 students. In such 'groups' people can work individually, or in small groups and workshops; tutorials and lectures can be held; talking and writing can occur; socialising and a sense of identity can develop; audio-visual and other materials can be more easily utilised. The best balance between all these activities to suit both the class and the topic at hand can be mutually sought.

(ii) **The relationship between educational models in teacher-training institutions and in schools.**
Many more primary teachers have experienced the 'group' model as outlined above than have secondary teachers. This has given primary teachers practical experience of a model which they can later apply and use in their own classrooms. There is less chance of conflict between the institution and the school.

However, the secondary teacher, having most usually experienced the teacher-dominated class discussion model at

secondary school encounters the lecture/tutorial model almost exclusively at university or college. On re-entry to secondary school, he finds that the models he has experienced at tertiary level are inappropriate to the school situation, and will tend to revert to the way in which he was taught. The tertiary institution, here, is not constructively offering alternative models to the teacher-dominated class discussion. As well, the pressures on the student to conform to, and succeed in this model are exacerbated by his desire to succeed in the eyes of his supervising teacher – who, most usually, will use this model himself.

(iii) **Content and pace of subjects and courses**

Because meaningful 'learning' takes place more slowly than direct 'teaching', we need to examine the amount of material students can be expected to 'assimilate and accommodate', that is, the amount of material which will not stay as 'school knowledge' but become 'action knowledge'.

The slower pace of 'learning' must be recognised and accepted by those in authority, difficult though this may be. The heuristic model can and must, of course, be structured in such a way as to benefit most the students, with the understanding that we are trusting the student to "accept the responsibility for his own learning".

(iv) **Assessment**

If we accept the notion of the 'first draft/final draft' approach to written work (as discussed in Bob Walshe's paper), then an assessment system which relies wholly or even partly on unseen questions being answered by essay in forty-five minutes is unacceptable. The best results of an exploratory/reflective approach will not be forthcoming. Even institutions which have some written assessment during the year give the students some weeks, or months, to consider the topics. Exams often become merely confirmatory exercises.

(v) **End-on v. concurrent structure**

A student teacher who has only one year in which to complete all his school experience will have less time to explore and reflect than a student whose school experience is spread over three or four years. Primary teachers who have traditionally enjoyed such a structure are seen, therefore, to be advantaged compared with the traditional end-on training of secondary teachers. (In Victoria, it is interesting to note that the Primary Teachers' Registration Board requires 100 days of supervised school experience, while the Secondary Teachers' Board requires only 45 days. This is purely historical – what would be the effect on end-on structures if

all secondary teachers had to complete 100 days?)

Conclusions

Traditionally, primary teachers have been educated in a concurrent structure, in 'groups', and with less emphasis on assessment by final, unseen examinations. Such a structure, then, will be more sympathetic and congenial to the pedagogic implications of the learning theory noted above, both at an administrative and at an academic level. New pedagogical practices can be grafted on to a stock which is basically healthy and pre-disposed to new growth.

This is not so with the traditional training of secondary teachers, being still largely an end-on, lecture/tutorial, assessment by examination model. Any change will present quite severe difficulties, both at an administrative and an academic level. We may envisage, therefore, a transition period at the end of which the education of all teachers will be in concurrent structures in which more learning will take place through the group model, and in which assessment will be only after sufficient time has been given to consideration of topics presented.

Recommendations –

1. That those teacher education institutions able to adopt a concurrent structure should move to do so.
2. That those institutions which find insurmountable constraints preventing their adopting a concurrent structure should move to question whether they are the institutions best suited to the undergraduate preparation of teachers.
3. That teacher education insitutions move to adopt the 'group' model as outlined above in (i).
4. That teacher education institutions move to abandon assessment by unseen examination.

Footnote

The acceptance of the above recommendations by educational funding authorities could have far-reaching ramifications – funds could be distributed preferentially to those institutions which use a concurrent structure, State Registration Boards could give preference to graduates from such institutions.

WORKING PAPER 5

ABOUT POWER AND POLITICS IN EDUCATION

Margaret Gill

There was one moment in a plenary session at Armidale when discussion reached an impasse. We had begun to question our taken-for-granted knowledge about schools and society, and focus on the politics of English and education. "Education" we said, "is unavoidably political." But to say education is political is to say everything is political, which is to say nothing. What did we want to say?

Working Party 5 decided to take as its brief an analysis of power relationships in education. If "analysis" proved too ambitious a task, we would simply describe, taking the notion of power and considering its implications at different levels of the English teacher's professional life. The scope was unlimited. It ranged from the personal (the individual's reflection on the nature of his own values and potential), to the public (an anatomy of educational decision-making). Certain questions remained central. How can the English teacher (or any teacher) work in the best interests of the child? What are the constraints? What are the supports and opportunities?

The learning experiences which the school provides for the child are determined in part by a complex chain of decisions. At the macro level these are most easily recognised in government actions which place limits on, or give direction to different kinds of education policies through the allocation of funds from the federal treasury. The direction of these funds is influenced by certain agencies such as the Schools Commission) and these, in turn, are sensitive to prevailing socio-economic winds and pressure groups. Thus, in the early seventies, the golden years of educational expansion, school-initiated innovation programmes were funded – particularly to support disadvantaged groups, and improve the quality of schooling through, for example, reduced class sizes and improved capital equipment. There was also generous funding to teacher training institutions and to in-service organisations. The prevailing assumption was that by improving the quality of schooling for the child, the quality of his life chances would be enhanced. But socio-economic conditions change. Old slogans fade away, to be replaced by new ones. "You never had it so good" becomes "Life wasn't meant to be easy." Assumptions are questioned. New policies defined. Sometimes old policies get caught on the hop.

It is worth anchoring this incomplete outline in a particular historic example, drawn from the field of English. In 1972 the

UNESCO Seminar in Sydney recommended the establishment of a national committee on English teaching "to gather and disseminate information and to promote research and experiment at all levels, particular emphasis being given to involving teachers in this activity." Two years later the National Committee on English Teaching was established (How many teachers knew?) and undertook as its first priority a survey of teacher education in English, language arts and English methodology in every tertiary institution in Australia. (How are decisions about "What is to be researched" arrived at? What criteria were used, and by whom?) The data was collected in 1975; the final report will be presented to the Minister in 1978. (What plans were being developed in your college in 1975? What do they look like as 1978 approaches?)

In the position paper, *Some Trends in Teacher Education in Australia: An Individual Impression*, Warwick Goodenough explained how part of the data for the survey was collected in "frank interviews, conducted by trusted and well-informed tertiary teachers." Some of the "trusted and well-informed tertiary teachers" were present at Armidale, and expressed profound unease at the use that might now be made of those "frank interviews". (What happens when data is collected in one socio-political climate and interpreted in an entirely different one?) Warwick Goodenough writes:

> My first impression of teacher education in English is one of confusion, of contradiction, inexplicable variety, disparate standards, vagueness, muddle and irrationality. The same data might also be described as one of rich variety, regional variations meeting regional needs, variety of choice for students, colleges serving differing state needs, and adaptable institutions influenced by different but equally scholarly rationales. Whether one sees mud or stars perhaps isn't relevant.

We disagree. We believe it is highly relevant to know whether you are seeing mud or stars – and also to know *why*. What is "diversity" in one context becomes "muddle" in another. Whichever perception is dominant will have serious practical consequences at the level of governmental decision-making: governments don't allocate funds to "muddle".

One important issue here would seem to be the way teachers and teacher educators, are caught in the climatic change. In an expanding economy, social structures "unfreeze", to use House's[1] metaphor; there is tolerance for a degree of "messing around" or "slack". House sees these as necessary conditions for revaluation, innovation and progress. Immediate accountability and immediate practicality are not beneficial for invention. When the "freeze" sets in, institutions who have been involved in a process of change may be stranded. He writes:[2]

> When a new idea like economic accountability appears,

1. E. House, **The Politics of Educational Innovation**. McCutchan Pub. Corp. 1974. Ch.7.
2. Op. cit. p. 175.

> schools are intellectually helpless before it. There are few better ways of emasculating an institution than to strip it of its idea-creating power and its initiating ability. It must then either be impotent to change, or subject to the whims of popular sentiment as interpreted by third parties. It is an easy make.

Are Back-To-Basics pressures, and Competency-Based Teacher Education Programmes promoted because they are in the best interest of children? Or are they "an easy make"?

At the state level, Education Departments work in closer contact with schools. Their policies shape learning programmes in a variety of ways. Some examples: firstly, staffing policies not only establish class sizes, but also the organisation of schools, determining the number of deputies, subject co-ordinators and support staff. The extent to which a school is able to embark on a curriculum development programme will be closely related to the availability of in-service support and curriculum consultancy services. It will also depend on staff stability. Promotion policies which encourage high teacher mobility, inevitably influence the quality and duration of "change" programmes in individual schools.

Lack of policy can have equally serious effects. For example, State departments have failed to develop a clear policy for beginning teachers, or to institutionalise an effective support service for them. Young teachers, who are so often the subtle educators of their elders, continue to cope with the most difficult middle secondary years, in contexts that destroy the credibility of the "good theory and practice" their teacher training may have urged.

Secondly, statutory curriculum boards and syllabus committees make decisions in relation to the total curriculum, individual subject areas, and acceptable subject groups. In most states, examination boards determine patterns of examining in the final year(s). The results of these examinations are used, not only by tertiary institutions for admission purposes, but by employers and others. Their influence is also felt further down the school, where teachers find their curricular choices modified by the constraints of external syllabuses.

Thirdly, financial and architectural considerations determine the precise location, size and nature of school buildings, and thus the environment in which teacher and pupils work. Open plan models, for example, can have reverberating influences in more ways than one. You cannot run your year nine improvised drama class when only a folding partition separates you from HSC Pure Maths. Some inner urban primary schools are driven to constructing complicated systems of temporary curtains to offset the threatening "space" which over-awes beginners used to high-rise flats and small terrace houses.

Finally, when decisions have to be made to reduce state expenditure on education, special services are specially vulnerable, and yet they may be serving "needs" areas to which society gives high priority. In recent years school remedial units, reading centres and migrant

programmes have had the financial rug pulled out from under them.

In the above ways, among others, influences less remote than Canberra, but nevertheless outside the school, shape the classroom teacher's view of what is possible or desirable.

Before the tone of this paper becomes irretrievably deterministic, and the teacher begins to feel like Murcuse's One-Dimensional Man, let us change gear, mix metaphors, and look at education through the other end of the telescope. In an article in **Journal of Curriculum Studies**, Fred Inglis[1], with characteristic rhetoric, suggests that the educational community might recover some of its lost honour by setting all its members the task of discovering "to what extent they are their own men and women". Thus, part of our analysis of power and politics in education includes a personal analysis, in which the individual articulates (perhaps only for himself) a statement of his important understandings: where he stands, what flag he flies, what drum he marches to. Where do his values lie in the value-laden world we all inhabit, and what effect do those values have on his life in classrooms, and on those he teaches?

One member of Working Party 5 attempted such an analysis. We offer it as an example (perhaps as a model?) of such reflexive thinking.

My education, school, colleges, marriage, children and all the rest have left me with these.

1. **To care about thinking, which gives shape and purpose to my living; to try to think tentatively, and to be able to say honestly to myself and to others, I DON'T KNOW.**
2. **To try to keep in mind that the ideas, beliefs and values which I hold have to engage with action. If and when they don't, I must modify, or perhaps scrap them. I CAN CHANGE MY MIND, and say I WAS WRONG.**
3. **To care about the dreams of others; and to recognise that the conversations between us, in print or in speech, are the means of developing the self.**

I NEED MY FRIENDS, and I NEED TO CARE ABOUT THEM.

I COVET THESE FOR MY STUDENTS.

In "caring about thinking" we need to review the taken-for-granted assumptions on which so much of our teaching depends. Douglas Barnes offered such an opportunity when he reminded us of the implications of his "school knowledge" and "action knowledge" distinction. Although the concepts have been around a long time: Whitehead's "inert ideas", Freire's "banking concept", Esland's "psychometric epistemology", Douglas Barnes offered an opportunity to reconceptualise them in terms of power. He suggested that schools generate a kind of engineered dependency in which pupils, in order to succeed, have to submit, not so much to the teacher, but to the knowledge industry as a whole.

It is the pupil's submission to the knowledge industry which is the

1. J.C.S. Vol.6(1) May 1974. F. Inglis, *Ideology and the Curriculum: the Value Assumptions of Systems Builders.*

crucial factor, not the definition of knowledge as a commodity. Thus it is simplistic to identify school knowledge as simply the language of textbooks, or knowledge required to pass exams, or able to be exchanged for future status or power. It is the child's stance as passive receiver or active thinker that is crucial.

Likewise, action knowledge runs the risk of being over-simply defined. The distinguishing definition of action knowledge as "knowledge used by the learner to make sense of something or to solve a problem" does not go far enough. We need to keep in mind the learner's need to *refine* that knowledge into progressively more effective categories, through which he can organise and sequence experiences – and we need to think about the implications of this. Bruner's[1] emphasis is relevant:

> I suspect that much of growth starts out by our turning around on our own traces and recoding in new forms, with the aid of adult tutors, what we have been doing or seeing, then go on to new modes of organisation with the new products that have been formed by these recodings. We say "I see what I'm doing now," or "So that's what the thing is". The new models are formed in increasingly powerful representational systems . . . I think a theory of development must be linked both to a theory of knowledge and to a theory of instruction, or be doomed to triviality.

It is the possibility of helping the child develop "increasingly powerful representational systems" that is at the heart of action knowledge, and gives it its radical pedagogical implications. But only when the possibility is worked out in a coherent theory of instruction.

What might classrooms, especially English classrooms, be like in which the sharper definitions of school knowledge and action knowledge were kept in mind? What would be the patterns of classroom interaction? What would be the nature of the curricular choices? How would the teacher place himself in relation to the knowledge being dealt with, and the child's responsibility for his own learning?

Firstly, to take a simple example, one might find a changed definition of "basic skills". The English teacher accepts the current popular pressure for higher standards in reading and writing (and would add talking to these, both as an important skill in its own right, and as a means of learning.) but he would also ask, for what purposes should children learn to read and write? The answer is neither simple nor obvious. If attempts to teach children to read and write are made only at the level of acquiring skills, and without involving the child's own purposes and sense of what is important, then they are likely to fail. In the new reconceptualisation, part of the definition of "basic skills" must be the child's ability to recognise reading and writing as tools which he can use for a variety of powerful and satisfying purposes.

1. J. Bruner, Toward a Theory of Instruction. Belknap Press, Harvard. 1971. p. 21.

Likewise, in secondary schools, if talking, reading and writing are used only as the means by which the pupil reproduces received knowledge, then he is doing little more than "submitting to the knowledge industry". The child needs to know how to challenge and criticise, how to formulate new meanings and possibilities for himself. These are not *alternatives* to skills-learning, they are essential elements.

Secondly, one might see a shift in the teacher's stance towards the child, and towards the subject-to-be-taught. The teacher is no longer the authoritative, authoritarian, holder-of-the-right-answer. But neither is he the caricatured, what-would-we-like-to-do-today, progressive. He is the guiding significant other, who induces the child to reflect on the emerging logic of the learning experiences offered, or the problems to be solved, and to use these reflections as a generalising base for acquiring future knowledge. Further, the teacher accepts the commonsense knowledge of his pupils, through which these transformations take place.

The teacher is also aware of the social context in which knowledge is developed, promoted and controlled. What pupils are being introduced to is a socially significant way of knowing and acting, and not a private world. This gives the teacher a critical perspective on the curriculum. He rejects the view of curriculum as pre-determined boxes of subject knowledge, though this does not mean that "content" is unimportant. Selection of content matters. He would like his pupils to understand why he thinks certain things are more important than other things. He wants his pupils to have access to his understandings. He makes his criteria available. There is no place for mystification.

This is not simply a question of changing the patterns of classroom interaction, from teacher direction to small group learning, for example, or from teacher control of behaviour to group negotiation. It is a more fundamental question, namely the teacher's recognition that the communication of his criteria and values to his pupils is important. And it is as important for him as it is for his pupils. He shares something of Freire's[1] perspective:

> . . . only through communication can human life hold meaning. The teacher's thinking is authenticated only by the authenticity of the student's thinking. The teacher cannot think for his students, nor can he impose his thought on them. Authentic thinking, thinking that is concerned about *reality*, does not take place in ivory-tower isolation, but only in communication. If it is true that thought has meaning only when generated by action upon the world, the subordination of students to teachers becomes impossible.

In other words, both teacher and learner (and the roles at times may be hard to distinguish) *share* power.

If the first section of the working paper showed unhealthy symptoms of determinism, the section above has shown signs of

1. P. Freire, **Pedagogy of the Oppressed**. Penguin. 1970. Ch.2.

galloping romanticism: One-Dimensional Man has been replaced by Man the Measure of All Things. The final section will adopt a different approach and consider the everyday world of the classroom, and the network of constraints and expectations which impinge on it.

The relationship which the teacher is able to establish with his class, and with individual pupils, has to take account of all the hidden assumptions and expectations which the child brings into the classroom with him. These involve notions about the sorts of things teachers make kids do.

The child builds up this network of expectations from many experiences. He absorbs something of his parents' values. These are signalled in a variety of ways: the priority they attach to his attendance at school; the kinds of questions they ask him about "what he did at school today?"; the way they react to parent-teacher night; or the request for money to cover use of class sets, or go on a school camp. He picks up other expectations from older siblings and friends: about subjects, which are "hard", which are a "bludge", which matter "because there's an exam"; about teachers, which ones "know what they're doing", which ones "let you fool round" – even whether grown-ups are people you can talk to. Most importantly, the relationship the teacher can establish with the child will be determined by the view the child has of himself – both as a "learner", and as a "mixer", or social being.

The teacher's view of what is possible is also modified by the expectations of the school community. How is English rated in the school curriculum? Is it the soft option – and getting softer every day, as English classes get louder and spelling deteriorates? If the English teacher is the standards-bearer for the whole school, and literacy problems are regarded as his exclusive province, then his task may be intolerable.

When traditional patterns of assessment and evaluation operate in the rest of the school, the English teacher may face the loss of subject status associated with not "marking" English properly; or he may be driven back to marking English by its components (spelling, comprehension, composition), and discovering, or inventing, "class averages" so that the English entry on the school report looks like everyone else's.

Expectations of this sort may well extend beyond the school. Employers and pressure groups in the community often accept the crudest evidence to satisfy the question: Is this school leaver worth employing? The English teacher, particularly if he is teaching in a technical school, may find himself pressured to define his subject in narrowly vocational and instrumental terms. Even if he achieves a balanced perspective on spelling and standards, he may feel obliged to construe the notion of the pupil as language-user only in the most utilitarian terms, such as: how to answer a telephone, apply for a job, read a motorbike manual.

The school may also have traditional expectations about what a curriculum statement should look like. If the principal, or subject

co-ordinator, expects to have all course outlines defined in strictly behavioural terms, with aims, objectives, content and evaluation clearly compartmentalised, the teacher may suffer a loss of nerve about the areas of his teaching where response is hard to monitor. Exploratory talk, or reading a story aloud, may come to seem unimportant because they don't look systematic enough when spelt out under the heading "Selection of Learning Experiences".

The organisation of the school timetable into separate lessons tends to work against effective teaching in English. English becomes fragmented into single units, with the possibility of "finishing it for homework" or "going on with it tomorrow". If discussion of ideas is to be fruitful, there must be the opportunity for depth discussion, rather than superficial exploration. This is more likely to occur when it is free of the tyranny of the bell. If writing is to be taken seriously, there should be time for the author to draft, re-draft, reflect, try it out on an audience. Writing is trivialised when the child competes with the clock, so that he can hand it in at the end of the period.

Schools have expectations about what counts as good and bad behaviour in the classroom. There is tacit respect for teachers who can "control" a class, and they are automatically judged to be better teachers than those who allow, or are unable to prevent, noise and disorder. This can have the insidious effect of forcing teachers into individual survival strategies, because it is seen as weakness to look for support, or ask for help, from colleagues. It works particularly against young teachers, whose fresh-out-of-college ideals may encourage activities such as small group discussion, improvised drama, a friendly, rather than coersive, relationship with the class. The difficult balance between informality and directiveness which such approaches require, is a skill that is learnt gradually. The young teacher may feel driven to lower his sights, when his ability as a teacher is judged mainly by the visible order or quietness of his classroom.

Even the experienced teacher can suffer a loss of innovatory nerve when faced with an unsympathetic consensus amongst his colleagues. Good teachers need to take risks, as they extend and test their understandings about language and learning, reflect on past experience, and decrease the gap between what they believe and what can be achieved. Any teacher's preparedness to take risks needs to be supported by his belief that his professional self-esteem, and the esteem of his colleagues, is not at stake. Change in any other climate is too difficult.

English teachers are sometimes regarded as suffering an excess of missionary zeal,[1] as if the responsibilities for the fate of western civilisation and the psycho-socio-linguistic health of their pupils rested on their shoulders alone. Good teachers will always define their task in ambitious terms – as the first three working papers in this book demonstrate.

In this paper we have investigated something of the political and institutional contexts which may limit the teacher's view of what is

1. See for example: M. Mathieson, **The Preachers of Culture.** Allen and Unwin. 1975.

possible. Unless teachers understand the power dimensions of social structures they may be defeated by their own ideals. But while they need to go beyond the perspective of their own individual actions, their belief in their own personal power remains crucial. So often it is this which enables the teacher to confound systems and circumstances, allowing him to say, in the face of the most unlikely odds: It was possible after all.

STATEMENT

IN SUPPORT OF A PROPOSAL FOR A NATIONAL BODY OF TEACHER-EDUCATORS IN ENGLISH

Ted Rush

One outcome of the current economic malaise and the consequent reconsideration of social purpose and priorities is that teacher-educators throughout Australia are being made aware of the public nature of the institutions within which they work. Political support at this time is demonstrably weaker than during the past decade, and the vulnerability of many courses and programs is clear. Decisions are being made which categorise teacher-education as a non-growth industry, and suggest that run-down rather than growth is likely in the next few years. Associated with this particular manifestation, and perhaps fruit, of accountability is an increased scrutiny "from outside" of what is provided under headings such as aims and objectives, content, skill/development, value orientation and behavioural goals within the training programs offered. In short, the area in which teachers are powerful, and the degree to which they make those with whom they work powerful, is under inspection. It may be, therefore, that a 'mark' of the next few years will be a more overt interference with the curricula and required end-results of teacher-education. If a debate on the role of teaching and schooling in the national life does develop, a reconsideration of what is done is inevitable. Teacher-educators need to be well-prepared to handle any consequent re-definition.

In this context those presently employed in a permanent capacity to work in teacher-education – and in our case, English-education must be ready to make our position clear to the community, and especially to persons and groups responsible for decisions which directly affect what we do. An organisation able to function at the national level should be set up to act on behalf of those working in teacher-education in English. Such a body might be an independent association, or it might be associated with some body already established in higher education perhaps SPATE, or it could be related to a body already working in the area of English. Given the organisational framework of the Australian Association of Teachers of English (A.A.T.E.) at the national level, and its member bodies at State level, it would seem that this new body could be either an affiliate or an integral part of A.A.T.E. It could be an association of its members and their spokesbody, and as well, act as a lobby on behalf of their interests. A regular forum for the exchange of views and development of policy, which is also an adequate public relations body to ensure the accurate presentation of the views

of teacher-educators in English, is now required.

A permanent body of this type could organise a review of matters of mutual concern, and could provide leadership at the professional and community levels to ensure discussion and resolution of issues important beyond the narrower interests of particular institutions. Such issues might include the parameters of "English" at preschool, primary, secondary, and tertiary levels; the nature, function, and uses of Literature in contemporary society and schooling; the place of 'language studies' in teacher-education; the place of the language and literature of the "home-cultures" of first and second generation immigrants; literacy, in both school and post-school contexts; the relationship between English and the teaching of reading; "language across the curriculum"; media, language, and 'English'; language and literature in interdisciplinary studies; the place of 'English' in manpower retraining and development and a review of "the contemporary language and literature culture".[1] Such a body would also be an appropriate one for the co-ordination and dissemination of research findings as these affect what is done in the name of 'English' especially in schooling and teacher-education.

It may be that at this time neither the A.A.T.E. nor those working in teacher-education can easily support a body which could carry out this broad range of functions. However, a start should be made. If teacher-educators in English are to speak and be heard, and if they are to be consulted by and to give advice to the community and those making political decisions about education and schooling, more effective arrangements than exist at present must be made to ensure satisfactory results.

1. In the sense used by Richard Ohmann in English in America. New York O.U.P. 1976.

CONFERENCE WORKING PARTIES

Working Parties 1 and 2

Leaders: Frances Christie and David Mallick

Members:

Leslie Cartwright
Desmond Carroll
Bill Crocker
Ian Dicker
Jean Herd
Errol Hirst
Peter Holloway
Ian Malcolm
John Murray
Allan Nakkan
Joan Nolan
Tim O'Hearn
Joan Rothery
David Rummery
Tony Scanlon
Basil Shaw
John Trinder
Bob Walshe
Jan Woolley
Astrid Wooton

Working Party 3

Leader: John Collerson

Members:

Joy Bignell
Graham Boardman
John Cohen
George Colson
Barbara Field
Brian Fone
Warwick Goodenough
Rosmane Lawson
Stuart Lee
Liz Moore
Maurice Saxby
Peter Thodey

Working Party 4

Leader: Garth Boomer

Members:

Ros Arnold
Win Colvin
Bill Corcoran
Glyn Davies
Tom Dobinson
Graham Little
Monica Miland
Peter Moss
John Ward
Ken Wardrop

Working Party 5

Leader: Margaret Gill

Members:

Majorie Aldred
Graeme Baker
Douglas Barnes
Paul Brock
Barry Carozzi
Roslyn Coleborne
Vern Hembrow
Jim Hogan
David Homer
Les Ingram
Ronald Johnson
Gary Maclennan
Simon MacPhail
Arch Millar
Bernard Newsome
Judy Parker
Geoff Randall
Ted Rush
Andrew Sooby
Ernie Tucker
John Vaughan
Neil Whitfield

Section 2

THE POSITION PAPERS OF
THE CONFERENCE SPEAKERS

THE STUDY OF CLASSROOM COMMUNICATION IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Douglas Barnes

My starting point in this paper will be a course called 'Language and Communication in Education' which I teach to experienced secondary school teachers of various subjects. But I also teach Curriculum Theory, and voices from this other field will from time to time intrude themselves to ask disturbing questions, such as "Are you really getting unhooked from drilling future conformists, or is your classroom chat just a more comfortable way of getting children to conform?" So I'll begin by saying something about the activities I think teachers in training might engage in as a means of understanding language in the classroom and some of this will be familiar, because James Britton, Harold Rosen, John Dixon and I,[1] as well as others, have been saying it for some years. Later I'll go on to express some of my more recent thoughts – which include some doubts and uneasiness.

As an undergraduate at Cambridge I was taught by F.R. Leavis who directed our attention to Eliot's essay 'Tradition and the Individual Talent'[2]. I was much struck by Eliot's insistence that each generation has to *remake* the tradition; it isn't just a matter of taking it over passively. And in Leavis' emphasis on close reading there seemed to be the individual equivalent of this remaking. How could we attribute meaning to black marks on a white sheet without bringing our own experience to bear on it? In literature lessons the child must make sense of the poems and stories for himself, or the whole thing is a sham. Later when I began to read and think about education generally, the same seemed true of all learning, that the learner – however well he is taught – has to 'remake' any new knowledge out of what he in some sense already knows.

Much of the time we, no doubt, take the world out there for granted, assuming that we all know how things are. It is when for some reason we see the taken-for-granted world as open to question that we are likely to use language as a tool for remaking the world. I became very aware of this last year in a science lesson. The teacher had put out round the room various pieces of apparatus, and the ten or eleven year old pupils were going round carrying out instructions. I stood by one

1. D. Barnes, J. Britton, and H. Rosen (1971) **Language, the Learner and the School**, Penguin; J. Dixon (1969) **Growth through English**, Oxford.

2. T.S. Eliot (1917) *'Tradition and the Individual Talent'* in **Selected Essays**, Faber and Faber (1932).

piece of apparatus. It was a balanced bar with at each end a plastic bag hanging with the opening downwards. The pupils were to hold a lighted candle beneath one bag, observe what happened, and then take the candle away and observe what happened then. Finally, they were to explain what they had observed. I listened to a number of groups of children. As they talked to one another about the movement of the balance, they seemed to be doing two things: by putting into words ideas about the balancing of forces, and the movement of hot hair, they were mobilising and making available patterns of interpretation which they already partly possessed; but they were also transforming these ideas so that they could be combined and applied to the apparatus in front of them. This seems to me to epitomise the functions of talk in learning: it enables the learner to mobilise his existing knowledge, and to transform it so that it can be applied elsewhere.

Many teachers do not see talking and writing as contributing to learning in this way. When a colleague and I asked a sample of secondary teachers of various subjects about their use of written tasks in teaching, nearly half of their replies corresponded to a pattern which we called 'Transmission'[3]. For these 'transmission' teachers writing was a way of demonstrating that information had been grasped, and that it could be reproduced in an appropriate form. If writing contributed to learning it did so only by helping pupils to memorise. I would surmise, from what I have seen in lessons, that many teachers see talk similarly as a source of feedback to themselves or a way of fixing information in pupils' memories, and not as a way of learning. Of course it is perfectly possible to learn information in a passive manner but the learner is not likely by this means to learn how to use the knowledge: in Oakeshott's useful distinction, he would not learn 'judgment' but only 'information'[4].

It is important for all teachers to learn to listen to what their pupils say, and to read what they write. This does not imply the learning of a skill, of course, but the changing of attitudes and values. It is very easy to hear other people's talk as irrational, particularly when it is culturally different from our own – not only in content but in accent, vocabulary, or style of delivery – and this is particularly true of people whose status is lower than ours – such as children. My own interest in small group talk during the last six years has not been because I wanted to recommend it as a teaching method – it has its uses but it is not a panacea – but because it allowed me to listen to children tackling problems without the strategies they were to use being pre-empted by a teacher. So part of what I am recommending is that all student teachers – not only English specialists – should be given occasions for close attention to children's talking and writing.

3. D. Barnes and D. Shemilt (1974) *'Transmission and Interpretation'* **Educational Review** 26:3, June 1974.

4. M. Oakeshott (1967) *'Learning and Teaching'* in R.S. Peters (ed.) (1967) **The Concept of Education**, Routledge and Kegan Paul.

This might include sitting down with individual children and talking with them while they are working, tape-recording groups with or without a teacher, trying out a worksheet, or reading children's written work – not in order to evaluate it but in order to follow the process of the child's understanding.

Let me illustrate my point with a small quotation from one of the discussions which Frankie Todd and I recorded during our study of communication and learning in small groups[5]. Asked what would happen if a piece of rock made a hole in a spaceship, one thirteen-year-old girl challenged the question.

30 Nicola — Also if a spaceship is up in't, you know, up in't air, up in't, you know, space and there's no air around and the rock is floating about, the rock down, down, you know, you know, on the land level would be heavy.

31 Teresa — Yeah

32 Nicola — But up, you know, past gravity and that . . .

33 Terena — Yeah, it's light as a sponge

34 Nicola — It'll be, it'd be, it'll be ve, it'll be light as a sponge. So I think that's really a daft question because I don't think a rock in space could, you know, force a hole in a spaceship.

One might be forgiven for dismissing this as irrational in the light of Nicola's conclusion, and also influenced by her marked working-class accent and by the repetitions of "you know". But her thinking is rational and this becomes clear upon closer inspection. Nicola has taken the idea of "weightlessness" to imply that, at a distance from the earth, objects are "past gravity" and therefore have no mass. Thus a rock would be "light as a sponge" and unable to damage a spaceship. On the basis of her existing knowledge Nicola's reasoning is faultless, though the conclusion which she might write down, or give in reply to a teacher's question, would be judged wrong. My point here is that close attention to children's overt reasoning will make teachers less ready to treat them as passive receivers of knowledge who are quite unable to talk themselves into understanding.

Frankie Todd and I were impressed by the range of abilities which our thirteen year olds displayed. At times they were able to work out interpretations of questions, raise new questions of their own, set up hypotheses, and use evidence to evaluate assertions. More infrequently some of them could see their own viewpoints as provisional, and search for overarching principles which could account for the conflicting viewpoints. At the same time all of the groups coped with the social tensions of working together. I do not wish to idealise group talk: it can be confused, prejudiced, or inconclusive, and it is dependent on the teacher's success in enlisting pupils' collaboration. The important point is that all the teachers who participated in the study were surprised at their pupils' rationality and ability to control their own thinking: it

5. D. Barnes and F. Todd (1977) **Communication and Learning in Small Groups**, Routledge and Kegan Paul.

is worth pausing for a moment to ask why this should be.

In order to understand the basis of teachers' evaluations of their pupils we need to consider typical teacher-class discussions. We are all familiar with those many occasions when all that pupils are allowed to contribute to class discussion are single words or phrases which they slot into structures already provided by the teacher. Let us take a more favourable example: here is a student of mine deliberately trying to involve a class of eleven-year-olds in thinking about the transport of grain.

T. Why do we not send wheat by air?
P. Planes aren't as big as ships.
T. Yes, that's one reason, and a very good reason . . . Another?
P. The . . . er . . . the weight . . . If 'plane tries to turn and the weight started leaning off to one side, it might er . . . weigh the plane down at one side . . .
T. Yes, that's possibly true. It's got to be very evenly balanced, hasn't it, otherwise . . . very carefully loaded . . . Any others?
P. It's erm . . . not as big . . . and er . . . you can't carry as much. You can only carry so much.
T. You can't carry as much. Another.
P. Cost too much.
T. It costs too much, I think. That's a good answer, isn't it? Aeroplanes are much more expensive . . . than ships . . . for transport purposes.

If one were discussing this passage with students one would hope that they could recognise the skilful way in which the teacher acknowledges each contribution, and holds it in abeyance while he asks for an alternative hypothesis. They might not realise, however, the importance of a reply like "It's got to be very evenly balanced, hasn't it?" It has always seemed to me that a reply of this kind which does the learner the compliment of taking his contribution seriously is more valuable to children than a hundred assessment moves such as "Yes, good". A 'reply' implies that the learner is making a meaningful contribution whereas an assessment places the sources of meaning outside in the teacher's authority. Overall, this extract from a geography lesson seems to me to exemplify exceptionally sensitive and skilful teaching, yet even here the pupils are unable to follow their reasoning through, so that the teacher's enthusiastic acceptance of the idea that air transport would be too expensive appears as an arbitrary exercise of the teacher's authority – arbitrary because the criteria on which it is based are not made available to the learners. So even this teacher, who is relatively successful in involving his pupils in discussion, finally denies them access to the principles on which his judgment is based. This is why teachers tend to underestimate their pupils' rationality: the pupils have to play the teacher's game without fully knowing the rules. What is noticeably different in group discussion is that the criteria of judgment are the pupils' own, though this leaves the teacher with the problem of how to get the pupils to enunciate these criteria and consider them

critically.

I have quoted these two examples not to prefer one of them to the other but to make three points about the study of classroom communication. The first is perhaps obvious: we are not concerned solely with the teaching of English but with language across the curriculum. Secondly, I wish to place my main emphasis upon the possibility of control by pupils of their own learning, and the effect of various teaching strategies on this. My third point is that the kind of analysis made available by linguistics throws no light whatsoever upon such issues.

I do not wish to imply that if all teachers listened carefully to children they would understand the functions of talk and therefore teach differently. As the study of Transmission and Interpretation teachers suggested, our view of teaching and learning is likely to be inextricably intertwined with our view of what knowledge is. Teachers are not entirely free to change: beyond the science teacher's view of science lies not only university science with its examination sanctions, but scientific and technological interest groups in the outer world.

Elsewhere I have made a distinction between 'school knowledge' and 'action knowledge'[6]. School knowledge is that which is learnt just sufficiently to answer a teacher's questions, to fill in a worksheet, or to write out in a test. It is a commodity that can be exchanged for wealth, status or power. It doesn't impinge on what the children really believe about the world: indeed they don't even try to apply it to real life. For example, we all learnt at school that under standard conditions water boils at 100°C, but that does not prevent many people from allowing a kettle to continue boiling in the hope that the water will become hotter. 'Action knowledge' is that understanding of the world on which they act; some of it may once have been 'school knowledge', but most was probably learnt outside. (Much of what is taught in colleges and university departments of education remains school knowledge; at least in the U.K. it seldom makes much contact with what the students will do as teachers in classrooms. Part of my intention in this lecture is to recommend a study of classroom communication that can readily become part of teachers' action knowledge.)

How then does school knowledge become action knowledge? It can only do so by being used by the learner to make sense of something or to solve a problem. My interest is in the part played by talking and writing in this process of finding out how school knowledge can help to explain the real world.

Some 'school knowledge' is important; much of it is trivial. (I remember a laborious English lesson on the verse-structure of the limerick.) But it all has in common the effect of devaluating the pupil's existing action knowledge, and with it his ability to make sense of the world. Deeply embedded in much schooling is a kind of engineered dependency: in order to succeed pupils have to submit to the authority

6. D. Barnes (1976) From Communication to Curriculum, Penguin.

not so much of the teacher as of the knowledge-industry as a whole. I remember an extreme case of this in a Geography lesson in a rural High School. The pupils were supplied with an admirable aerial photograph of the area, which displayed very clearly the villages, farms and communications of the area. I had already heard these young people talking in a biology lesson about farming, crops and animals. The geography teacher however asked them what information the photograph gave through its shape, tone and texture. The question silenced the class: they were unable to use what they knew most intimately, their everday action knowledge, not because it was irrelevant but because of the way in which the teacher exercised his academic expertise. (It was remarkably like Cissy Jupe's inability to define a horse[7].) What I am suggesting is not merely that more exploratory talk and writing will make for better learning – though I believe that to be true for most children – but that encouraging exploratory talk carries with it the implication of encouraging pupils to trust their own judgment. School knowledge tends to devalue the learner in his own eyes.

It might well be said that what I have been talking about is not language, and in an important sense this is true. What I have been saying bears little or no relationship to the range of children's vocabulary, or the complexity of their sentence structure – 'T-units' or 'indices of subordination' and so on. I find linguistics a fascinating subject but of very little use in understanding pedagogical issues. (Even John Sinclair's interesting analysis of classroom discourse[8] seems to me to be off-centre, because he was concerned to describe what is characteristic of all teacher-class discussion, whereas what teachers need to know is what makes a discussion effective for learning.)

Nor have I been concerned with a neutral topic called 'teaching method'. In education we cannot avoid moral issues: whatever we do, we find ourselves preparing pupils (or college students) for one kind of world rather than another, and offering them a view of themselves and their roles in that world. I believe that we should be as explicit as possible about these choices, which are necessarily political in the sense that they are concerned with the future distribution of power and status. Leavis put it succinctly in his challenge: ',What for, what ultimately for?" Beyond concepts such as "interpretation teaching" and "action knowledge" lies a view of the importance of individual people which has implications for the distribution of power in society. This view is likely to be opposed by powerful forces which urge upon us alternative versions of society. This is why teachers should understand how communication affects learning, not just in order to improve their teaching skills but so that they understand the politico-moral nature of the choices which they must willy-nilly make moment by

7. I am referring here of course, to the much quoted passage from Dickens' **Hard Times.**

8. J.M. Sinclair and M. Coulthard (1975) **Towards an Analysis of Discourse: the English used by Teachers and Pupils,** Oxford.

moment during their teaching. They may have to support their classroom choices by argument and persuasion, joint action outside the classroom.

What course in language would be of value to teachers? Garth Boomer issued a most timely warning when he wrote that one should beware of "mistaking the maps for the territory"[9]. My recommendation is for getting future teachers – and present ones too – to begin by looking at the territory, and helping them to make maps for themselves. Teachers can best start by seeing how children, and adults too use language to tell stories, plan, solve problems, collaborate in play or work, recollect the past, compete, persuade, show off, and so on. An important part of this is for students to reflect on how they themselves use language for learning, both in discussion and writing, and small studies of this kind can readily be arranged.

When they turn explicitly to classroom communication the students can first observe, hypothesize, analyse and explain on the basis of recorded and written material which has been selected for them. Later, when they have some appreciation of central issues, and of how the verbal materials can be used, they can plan small investigations under tutorial guidance, and work on materials which they themselves have collected. The intention of this approach would be to mobilise the students own purposes and values, especially through the initial study of their own uses of language in learning.

Is there no knowledge to help the map-making? I do find some background knowledge useful, particularly some of the ideas from sociolinguistics about how context is likely to affect language behaviour. I mean such aspects of context as group size, familiarity, relative status and power, though these too can often be suggested by students while discussing their own experiences. What is important is to give attention to the bases on which people evaluate language behaviour including their own. This would include the proposition that if one disapproves of low status accents of dialect forms it is not on linguistic grounds. (In a region like Yorkshire many teachers say that they accept dialect but cannot abide what they call "slovenly speech", and I find this a valuable focus for discussion.) In this context too I find it necessary to discuss Bernstein's work since he is often used to reinforce crude social stereotypes which enable teachers to lose the child behind the label. (Although I learnt a great deal from him, I now think his codes dangerously misleading.)

All this amounts to two things. I do not believe that a course in general linguistics is of particular use to teachers, though I believe that teachers ought to be highly aware of the part played by language in the exercise of social control through education. Secondly, this awareness should be fostered primarily through students' guided efforts to

9. G. Boomer (1977) *'Secondary English – Yesterday, Today and Tomorrow'* in K.D. Watson and R.D. Eagleson (eds.) (1977) **English in Secondary Schools: Today and Tomorrow**, English Teachers' Association of N.S.W.

understand how children use language in learning, and how their own classroom behaviour affects this. Linguistics has its own issues, and they are different from the issues that concern teachers and other educationists in trying to understand classroom communication. Moreover linguistics is currently concerned primarily with language forms; teachers have to concern themselves through language with meanings. But it is perhaps still more important that all of these theoretical maps are controversial, value-laden, not closed and authoritative, so that they should be presented to students and teachers as hypothetical and open to modification. The study of classroom communication should not be turned into a pseudo-science by closing off the issues: if social pschology, or linguistics, or sociolinguistics seems to press completed systems upon us they should be rejected. There are no authoritative maps, and if there were the students would still need to learn to use them. (I have been particularly horrified at the results when students have been encouraged to treat my own exploratory writings as if they were established truth.)

Teachers' own sensitivity to language, developed and refined by careful study of the kind I have referred to, is of more value than any of the existing maps. They need to recognise children's struggles to understand, both to value them and to know how best to intervene, and they need to know how their interventions can either inhibit or encourage thought. I should perhaps point out that I am thinking of all teachers and not only those who see themselves as English specialists. Colleges of Education in England frequently require all students to follow a general course in English, and it is here that work of the kind I have outlined would find a place.

I am aware that much of what I have said so far will be familiar to those of you who have been thinking about language in education, so I want to end with a word or two about how my own thinking has been moving lately. The impact of work on the sociology of knowledge has been to make us in England very aware that teaching takes place in a socio-political context.[10] In my own earlier work I criticised some teachers for an excessivly tight control which reduced their pupils to passivity, but I now see that my account of this was superficial. If I had been more aware of the social context in which they were working I would have made better sense of their teaching styles. Teachers wish to teach, but they also have to control a class of children without too much expenditure of nervous energy, to satisfy parents, conform to (or explicitly oppose) the values of colleagues and superiors, and defend their boundaries against assaults on resources, time or status. Much closed teaching makes better sense if it is seen in such a context, and this helps us to understand why mere injunctions to change teaching styles have little effect. If we urge teachers to change their style we also

10. See not only M. Young (ed.) (1971) **Knowledge and Control.**, Collier-Macmillan, but more recent extensions of this line of thought: G. Whitty and M. Young (eds.) (1977) **Exploration in the Politics of School Knowledge**, Nafferton Books; M. Young and G. Whitty (eds.) (1977) **Society, State and Schooling**, Falmer Press.

need to help them to find ways of changing the social contexts in which they work, and this may mean finding new ways of collaborating with other teachers and with parents.

A further stage in this argument points out that education as a whole is ambiguous, concerned as much with selecting children for their future life-chances as with educating them. Education in urban societies faces in two directions at once, and performs two functions which seem contradictory. I shall call them Reproduction and Regeneration. Both Australia and the U.K. are stratified societies: some groups have greater power, status and wealth than others do. Our education systems are deeply involved in allocating pupils to strata and in maintaining the strata in existence. Pierre Bourdieu[11] calls this function "reproduction": it includes both selecting pupils, and socialising them so that they accept the place assigned to them. Most teachers don't like this view of their work – I don't like it myself – but it seems to me incontrovertible that all modern urban societies use education in this way.

If education is concerned with shaping pupils' futures, it does this not just by teaching knowledge. It does so equally by establishing in pupils' minds just where they stand with respect to officially accredited knowledge and performance, what they 'know', what they 'can do', what they find 'interesting', or 'boring' or 'worthwhile', whether they are 'bright' or 'dull'. Ironically this is equally effective for those pupils who are technically 'failing' in their education as for those who succeed: those who fail come to know that they are "thick", that advancement via schooling is not for them. Some become rebellious and 'trouble-makers' – and this too is part of the successful cooling-out process by which they come to accept their future roles.

Such evaluation goes on all the time in schools; we cannot teach without approving and disapproving, checking some children and encouraging others. It is not only in examination rooms that Bourdieu's 'reproduction' is carried out. Sharp and Green have recently shown how even in liberally-slanted British infants schools, the reception class children are quickly categorised as 'bright', 'normal' or 'peculiar'[12].

Let me stay with Sharp and Green a moment longer. They point out that whereas the progressive infant school teacher tells her charges to do as they wish so long as they are 'busy', she is all along predicting their future educational performance in the light of what they choose to do. The criteria she uses are not made explicit to children or parents: indeed parents are urged not to teach their children to read or to calculate. Yet those children whose homes have nevertheless taught them to value reading and calculation will be those who will be seen as 'bright' or 'promising' because they choose these activities rather than play with sand or dolls. If Sharp and Green are right, then the very inexplicitness of progressive methods make them ideal for perpetuating

11. P. Bourdieu and J.C. Passeron (1977) **Reproduction in Education, Society and Culture**, Sage Publications.

12. R. Sharp and A. Green (1975) **Education and Social Control**, Routledge and Kegan Paul.

social class differences. It seems to me that this is a challenge which has to be faced. Are progressive methods merely an invisible pedagogy, as Bernstein calls it[13], or can children be given partial responsibility for their learning without disadvantaging those whose homes have not given them access to the school's tacit values?

There seems to me to be a conflict in education between Reproduction and what I call Regeneration. (The term 'Regeneration' is based on analogy with the linguists' idea that language is generative – that a finite rule system allows us to generate an infinite range of meanings.) We are back again now with Eliot's idea that culture has to be remade in every generation. Education is undoubtedly involved in the Reproduction of the power-system of our society, and of much of the inert knowledge that goes with it, but that is not the whole story. At best teachers also manage to set up classrooms in which there is elbow room for children to take on new knowledge critically, try it out, and reject or modify it, and to learn that it is possible not only to see alternative possibilities but to get together and struggle to put them into effect. This seems to be one way in which teachers can subvert the labelling of children which they are involved in simply by being teachers. They can listen to children, reply seriously to what they say and encourage them to talk from their own viewpoint, refusing to box them into stereotypes. Reproduction is not the whole story, and that is why it is important for young teachers to understand how schooling can constrict their pupils.

At a conference in London earlier this year I heard the sociologist Nell Keddie talking about Freire's adult literacy teaching: she said, "Literacy carries with it both the possibility of social control and of liberation". Everything that teachers do in classrooms carries implications for the future lives of their pupils: teaching is unavoidably political. I want teachers to understand this, and how it relates to the details of what they say and do in lessons, because I believe that education as a whole "carries with it both the possibility of social control and of liberation".

13. B. Bernstein (1975) *'Class and Pedagogies: Visible and Invisible'* in **Class, Codes and Control.** Vol. III, Routledge and Kegan Paul.

TEACHING READING: THE ROLES OF ACCOUNTABILITY AND CRITERION-REFERENCED ASSESSMENT AND INSTRUCTION

Robert Chester

During the last four or five years, reading has become one of the most popular and at the same time, one of the most controversial topics of interest and conversation. It has been thrust into this position by the resurrection of the age-old cry, "Back to basics." It seems that everyone, anxious parents, concerned citizens, special enquiry boards, politicians, members of the news media, and thousands of educators, has rediscovered the Holy Trinity of the classroom: Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic. Two of the more notable examples of this with which you may be familiar are **Enquiry into Literacy and Numeracy**, published by the New South Wales Department of Education, and the report from England **A Language for Life**, better known as the Bullock Report. The New South Wales report states, "Yet Australia, like other affluent industrial countries, has a system of educational provision historically based on the explicit objective of ensuring basic competency in the '3Rs'. Possession of these skills is regarded as essential for further learning, and we are inclined to assume that all 'normal' children acquire these skills as a matter of course." The Bullock Report is similar in intent but shifts the focus to the teaching of the uses of English, including reading, writing, and speech. It is perhaps significant that both the Bullock and New South Wales reports resulted from widespread pressure calling for a return to the basics.

But why? What does all of this mean to us? An examination of accountability, a major factor contributing to the movement back to the basics, constitutes the first part of this paper. The remainder of the paper consists of a discussion of criterion-referenced assessment and instruction, one viable response to the question, Where do we go from here?

Accountability in education emerged early on in education circles as an emotion-loaded term. Many people saw it as a panacea, a means of making education more cost efficient in terms of personnel, time, materials, and other resources. Others, however, viewed it as a mechanistic, depersonalized approach to education which treated the school as an institution for the exchange of goods and services and children as products on an assembly line. And of course, there were the vast majority of individuals who fell somewhere between the two polar positions.

A brief look at accountability in education reveals that more often

than not, it amounts to holding teachers responsible for improving the reading and arithmetic scores of pupils in their classes. Certainly, this does not appear to be an unreasonable expectation, given that much of what goes on in school and in the world revolves around the ability to deal with words and numbers. However, whether reading and arithmetic scores should constitute the only, or even the major, concern of teachers and schools is a question yet to be resolved. Indeed, it may not be resolvable, if resolution lies in convergence of the various economic, political, social, and educational factions, each with its own telescopic view of the truth. In any case, the answer to this question lies outside the parameters of our present discussion.

For exploration of the issue of accountability, it will be helpful to examine it through the use of the following questions:

1. What does accountability in education really mean?
2. Who really wants accountability and why?
3. For what are we accountable?
4. To whom are we accountable?
5. How is accountability related to teaching reading?

1. *What does accountability in education really mean?* The answer to this question continues to evolve as new programs are implemented, as new techniques of assessment become available, as community, social, economic, and political pressures mount, and as professional perceptions mature. The operational answer that we have been employing in the past is: Accountability means that we should hold teachers responsible for improving the reading and arithmetic scores of their pupils. However, a more realistic answer would be: Accountability means that the schools, the professional educators, are held responsible for what children learn. The underlying assumption behind this answer is that such accountability will encourage improved professional performance, which will in turn result in better academic achievement and better attitudes on the part of pupils.

2. *Who really wants accountability and why?* If we believe that accountability can lead to improved educational outcomes, then the idea should have strong and widespread support from professional educators. However, the fact is that the major push for accountability has come from sources outside the traditional mainstream of professional education. For example, a great deal of impetus has been supplied by the demand for evaluation of school programs and even entire school systems brought about as part of federal, provincial, state, or local funding. Another contributing factor has been the major changes in economic conditions, changes which have resulted in budget cuts that have caused a re-examination of educational endeavour in view of cost effectiveness. Additionally, changes in social consciousness over the last few years have brought about a focussing on the special

needs of the disadvantaged as a high-priority responsibility of the schools. And finally, the trend towards making the schools more responsive to their pupils and their communities has contributed significantly to the cause of accountability.

These major thrusts, together with other, less obvious forces, emerge as mutually reinforcing sources of support for accountability. Together they represent a formidable lobby capable of exerting powerful pressure for educational change and for accountability on the part of the educational establishment.

3. *For what are we accountable?* There appear to be both an idealistic aspect and a realistic aspect to the answer to this question. Ideally, the school should be responsible for (a) selecting "proper" or "correct" objectives and assigning them appropriate priorities, (b) seeing that the objectives are achieved, and (c) avoiding any adverse effects on pupils. Of course, a major problem is that the selection of objectives can turn out to be a highly subjective exercise, influenced by all sorts of philosophical, social, political, and economic forces. Further, even after the objectives have been identified and stated, serious problems remain as to how to assess children's attainment of them and how to anticipate and avoid adverse effects. Obviously, compromise must be worked out between what is desirable and what can be done.

Realistically, it is more feasible for the school to be responsible for educational outcomes for which (a) objectives have been carefully defined and (b) output can be measured. That is to say, if the school is to be held accountable for production and output, it makes sense to carefully define the goals and terms of measurement.

Given these circumstances, it appears appropriate for the schools to be held responsible for two kinds of performance: first, cognitive performance in skill areas such as reading and math, where essential skills can be identified and described in behavioural terms; and second, certain types of affective performance which can be measured. Relating to this point, it should be noted that dropout rates, absenteeism, vandalism, and delinquency are examples of affective performance at its most basic and meaningful level and should not be overlooked. Pragmatically, the basic skill areas in the infant and primary schools are most amenable to accountability because there is reasonable agreement as to definition and identification of skills, and as to methods for measurement of performance. Unfortunately, there is considerably less agreement for the nonskill areas, and particularly for the content areas in high school.

Here it must be pointed out that even within the basic skill areas such as reading and math, there are fundamental differences between elementary school and high school. During the K - 6 period of education, learning the reading and mathematical processes becomes, by and large, an end in itself. For example, the emphasis in reading is on learning the basic skills associated with decoding and comprehension, with less emphasis on employing reading as a tool for gaining

information. However, in high school, the emphasis shifts dramatically. There is virtually no instruction in developing the skills; rather, the entire emphasis is on employing reading as a tool for deriving information associated with the various content areas. In the elementary years, reading and math are closed tasks, ends in themselves; in the high school, they serve as tools, as means to an end.

4. *To whom are we accountable?* As unlikely as it may at first appear, accountability in education permits professional educators to become accountable to themselves. Contributing to this is a process which begins with the establishment of tangible goals and ends with appropriate assessment to determine whether the goals were attained. Where the goals represent realistic expectations, they should be reached or exceeded; when this does not occur, there is reason to examine both the goals and the methods employed in pursuing them with a view towards making improvements. I feel very strongly that this aspect of accountability which allows the professionals in education to examine their own performance is critically important. Only by specifying the outcomes of teaching to the extent that they can be given intense scrutiny and careful evaluation can we make truly systematic attempts at improvement.

Here I wish to digress long enough to say that we as educators are accountable to ourselves only if we take the initiative in establishing realistic objectives and criteria. If, as so often happens, we forfeit the opportunity to do so, and allow ourselves to be reduced to responding to objectives and criteria set up by others, then we have lost a significant advantage for ourselves and for education. As early as 1971 I was making this point to various educational groups in the United States, and more recently to educators in Canada, and time after time I have seen various pressure groups, motivated by social, political, or most often, economic reasons, lay on objectives and criteria for which the educational systems were held accountable. In addition, I have observed that quite regularly the goals and objectives are poorly conceptualized and the criteria not measurable, unachievable, or even undesirable in view of the larger set of paramaters within which the school systems have to work. Educators in these situations are put in the untenable position of having to develop and implement programs to which they have little commitment and to meet criteria which they had little or no voice in establishing. This is obviously accountability at its worst.

In addition to educators, there are a number of other groups who have a legitimate interest in accountability. Parents, for example, deserve an opportunity to appraise the performance of their children and their schools. Because programs in our schools are often nebulous and our reporting system clouded with vague generalizations, parents are often unsure of their child's progress or lack of progress. Also, it is usually difficult for parents to evaluate complaints and criticisms made by their children or by other individuals within the community. In

short, parents are quite often uninformed or poorly informed about what the school is doing because we have failed to lay out goals and objectives.

If it is true, as I believe it to be, that most schools are doing an adequate and responsible job of teaching children, then much of the criticism directed towards them is based on miscommunication or a misunderstanding of the school's roles and responsibilities. And since we are accountable to the parents, it behooves us to spell out our goals and objectives. Accountability systems designed to describe the school's responsibilities as they relate to basic skills will not solve all problems of school-community relations but they can be a significant step in the right direction.

A third group directly concerned with accountability is that comprised of various administrative and regulatory committees, boards, and agencies. Again, since funding and support are regularly tied to some measure of performance, it is essential that the school system make every attempt to clearly define its goals and objectives and to carefully establish standards of performance. Whether spelled out or not, most educational institutions and systems are accountable to such bodies.

And finally, we are accountable to the children. It is enough to say that everything else is insignificant if we fail here. The students will always be the ultimate measure of our performance.

5. *How is accountability related to teaching reading?* I am convinced, as are many of my colleagues in the areas of reading and language arts, that approaches to reading instruction employing criterion-referenced assessment and instruction provide the most workable basis for demonstrating accountability in teaching reading. If we as professionals in education take the initiative in working out the details of such approaches, we can expect certain benefits. First, we can be assured a voice in setting realistic goals for ourselves rather than having others impose their goals on us. Second, we can retain our credibility regarding the need for relative criteria if the goals we establish reflect this need from the start. Third, we can be assured that the system will be one that will in fact permit self-improvement through diagnosis and evaluation. The movement towards accountability in education can be a threat or a challenge. It can become the worst kind of threat if we as educators are forced to take responsibility for goals and objectives that were established wholly by others. It can continue to be a challenge if we accept the initiative and provide a response that is active, positive, and optimistic.

It is from this point, this need for active participation and purposeful involvement in establishing our roles and responsibilities in teaching reading, that we now move on to the discussion of criterion-referenced assessment and instruction and its relationship to reading. Let us begin with a definition. Criterion-referenced measurement relates an individual's assessment performance to absolute standards rather

than to the performance of others. It is unlike norm-referenced assessment, in which an individual's scores are compared to the performance of some normative groups and derive their meaningfulness from the comparison. The most common examples of norm-referenced tests are the standardized tests of achievement and intellectual ability. These tests yield scores described by such terms as quartiles, percentiles, stanines, or grade levels. With standardized tests, an individual's performance is judged in comparison with all others who have taken the same test.

Unfortunately, although norm-referenced tests were never designed to give information about an individual's attainment of specific objectives, they are nevertheless often treated as if they do. Perhaps this regular misuse is their most serious limitation. Employed inappropriately, the information they yield can be misleading, or as is more often the case, useless.

When criterion-referenced tests are used, there are no comparisons between individuals. Instead, each individual's performance is evaluated in terms of some previously established criterion or performance standard. Frequently, behavioural objectives are used to establish performance standards and serve as one basis for criterion-referenced assessment.

In the teaching of reading, then, a criterion-referenced approach demands a definition of goals and objectives and the use of criterion-referenced tests designed to measure each individual's demonstrated performance in skills and abilities considered essential to mastery. Diagnosis and assessment determine the individual's success in working with specific objectives, and instruction brings into focus the materials and procedures that will most efficiently facilitate the attainment of the objectives.

In developing and carrying out a criterion-referenced assessment and instruction program in reading, one usually proceeds through the sequence described below. Obviously, the philosophies, perceptions, constraints, and individual personalities of various implementors will tailor and modify each program, but essentially, the criterion-referenced approach to reading contains the following five steps.

1. *Identification of essential skills.* First, we must determine what we want children to learn if we hope to be successful in our efforts to teach them to read. This means that we must identify the skills that are considered essential to success in reading.

Unfortunately, we do not have at the present time an empirically derived and validated set of essential skills in reading. This situation exists mainly because to date, no one has done the massive and sophisticated task analysis and the in-depth research necessary to determine precisely which skills must be mastered, or what their hierarchical arrangement should be. Complicating the matter is the inability of people in reading and research to agree on a definition of reading. At least for the present and for the immediate future, it appears that

such a set of empirically based skills is unlikely to be available.

This lack of an empirical base does not mean that nothing can be done to derive a list of meaningful skills. In fact, we can readily observe that reading is being taught successfully by many teachers and there is substantial agreement among them as to what constitutes essential skills. Consequently, we can make use of these lists of skills which have the consensual support of successful teachers. Indeed, even though the research is limited and though there is considerable disagreement about the definition of reading and the identification of skills, it does seem reasonable to identify and make use of such information as is available. Appendix A of this paper contains my own list of word attack skills that have consensual, historical, and limited empirical validity.

Once the skills considered essential to success in reading have been identified, we have a basis for proceeding with instruction. From this point the major responsibility is to help each child master the skills as quickly and efficiently as possible. To facilitate this, it is usually helpful to organize the skills into some sort of hierarchy of priorities and to state them as objectives.

2. *Statement of objectives.* Once the essential skills have been identified and agreed upon, it is useful to formulate them as either behavioural or expressive objectives. *Behavioural objectives*, with their integrated mastery levels of behaviour, serve two purposes. (1) They represent explicit behaviours that are essential for mastering a given skill, thus offering a basis for discussing a skill with others and for setting a goal for teaching the skill. (2) They establish observable criteria that permit the teacher to decide when a child has mastered a given skill.

Expressive objectives are useful when mastery levels cannot, or should not, be prescribed. Eisner (1967) offers us a succinct but excellent description of the expressive objective.

> *Expressive objectives differ considerably from instructional objectives. An expressive objective does not specify the behaviour the student is able to acquire after having engaged in one or more learning activities. An expressive objective describes an educational encounter: it identifies a situation in which children are to work, a problem with which they are to cope, a task they are to engage in – but it does not specify what from that encounter, situation, problem, or task they are to learn. An expressive objective presents both the teacher and the student with an invitation to explore, defer, or focus on issues that are of peculiar interest or impact to the inquirer. An expressive objective is evocative rather than prescriptive.*

Regarding the levels at which the objectives should be stated,

Krathwohl (1965) offers three possibilities. He describes an abstract level at which objectives consist of broad, general statements that (a) specify goals for large organizational units such as infant schools, primary schools, or high schools; (b) direct program development; and/or (c) identify courses and subject areas to be covered. At a second level, he describes more concrete objectives stated in behavioural terms and appropriate for refining general goals into more specific instructional goals. At a third level, he describes objectives so explicit that they prescribe a particular route for attaining the objectives offered in the second level.

While objectives at all three levels serve a purpose, those stated at the second level are probably most useful. In the classroom, objectives stated at the second level can be used to determine the content to be covered in the unit, to select appropriate experiences for instructional purposes, and to guide the construction of assessment instruments and procedures. Such mid-level objectives serve to establish attainable, observable goals, without being so specific as to become prescriptive.

3. *Examination of individual skill development.* When we have determined which skills we consider essential, and when we are able to describe our expectations regarding mastery of those skills, then we are ready to begin assessing the skill development status of our pupils. We are able to observe their behaviour and evaluate their strengths and weaknesses.

For this initial assessment or preassessment, criterion-referenced measures can be used to identify instructional needs and to determine initial placement levels, i.e., where the pupil begins in the skill hierarchy. Criterion-referenced measures can also be used after instruction for postassessment to determine whether skills have been mastered. In either case, such assessment may take one of several forms, depending on the nature of the objective-referent and the situation. As the schema below illustrates, the measures may be formal or informal and they may be written or oral.

	Written	Oral
Formal	Paper-and-pencil tests	Performance tests
Informal	Work samples	Teacher observation

Taken from **Objective-Based Reading.** [5]

Paper-and-pencil tests have the main advantage of being designed for group administration and rapid scoring. Using such tests, we are able to formally test large numbers of children quickly and efficiently, to

make periodic accountability checks, and to accomplish other types of assessment which call for across-the-board testing. On the other hand, paper-and-pencil tests do have several limitations. Their format is usually quite rigidly prescribed by the question types, answer sheets, and scoring considerations. In addition, certain objectives cannot properly be assessed by paper-and-pencil tests. Finally, they do not allow for oral responses and often inhibit or cancel opportunities for verbal clarification. *The fact is, some children never respond adequately in formal paper-and-pencil testing situations.*

Performance tests may be used where we elicit an oral and/or motor response by assigning a task related directly to the objective. For example, if we have an objective that calls for the ability to pronounce phonetically regular words, we need to attend to the child's oral responses. We could simply ask the child to read aloud a list of such words and immediately ascertain whether he or she has mastered the objective. We could then judge his or her success based on the criterion established by the objective.

As the schema indicates, performance objectives are classified as "formal". The responses are elicited by the teacher and the performance is directed, not spontaneous. However, it should be noted that the teacher is available to provide immediate feedback and to humanize the testing situation. Successful performance testing requires considerable time and much careful preparation but in appropriate situations it is likely to give a more accurate evaluation than other types of assessment.

Informal observations may take the form of teacher observations or work sampling procedures and are particularly useful with expressive objectives. Written work such as worksheets, class assignments, and out-of-school assignments can be evaluated in light of specific objectives, and problems or skill difficulties can be noted for future instruction. As with other types of evaluation, the objectives will identify relevant behaviours or performances and when appropriate, set criteria.

Other types of informal teacher observation can take place any time in the school day. The teacher selects an objective – perhaps a different one each day – and looks for instances in which relevant behaviours are demonstrated. For example, the skill may be related to independent use of the dictionary. As the teacher observes the children making use of the dictionary, she simply records a note to that effect. If after a number of observations she identifies children who are not demonstrating proper use of dictionaries, she may wish to investigate the reasons.

4. *Identification and implementation of appropriate teaching/learning activities.* Once we have identified essential skills, stated our objectives, and examined individual children's skill development, we are in a position to begin instruction. Criterion-referenced instruction involves

more than focussing on the pupil's strengths and weaknesses in skill development. It also calls for differentiated instruction for pupils with different learning styles. For example, given a common objective such as one dealing with prefixes and suffixes, some pupils will respond well to an alternative approach, and still others may require yet another approach. The fact is, for most pupils and for most skills or content areas, there is no one correct instructional approach.

What this means for the teacher is that even though she has specific knowledge of the pupils' needs and a clear understanding of the appropriate instructional content, she still cannot proceed at a purely mechanical, impersonal level and hope to achieve success. Rather, she should be an eclectic, a person aware of and comfortable with a number of approaches, and willing to adopt the most appropriate one for the individual child.

However, in order to avoid being overwhelmed by the vast quantity of materials and the numerous procedures and techniques available for teaching reading, the teacher should be constantly guided and directed by overall goals, a list of essential skills, and objectives. Once she determines what it is she wants to teach and decides what performance indicates that learning has occurred, she is free to use any methods and materials she considers appropriate. She can organize her teaching and her instructional materials around her objectives, thus becoming free to follow a number of alternative approaches but always aware of exactly where she is going.

5. *Evaluation of results.* When evaluating the results of a criterion-referenced assessment and instruction program for teaching reading, we need to look to two levels. First, we must be assured that the objectives are being reached. Second, we must be assured that mastery of our objectives is accompanied by functional reading ability, and ability to cope with reading tasks encountered both in and out of the school environment. Mastery of specific objectives is useless if it is not accompanied by the ability to apply them to and integrate them into the reading process, resulting in the ability to read connected text. We must provide ample opportunities for application of learning and must constantly monitor the process to see that reading ability is increasing.

Any breakdown in either specific skill development or functional reading ability signals the need for a re-evaluation of the entire process. A breakdown in the former can indicate too rapid pacing, inappropriate instructional methods or materials, particular personal difficulties, or other problems which can usually be identified and diagnosed through careful examination. A breakdown in the latter, i.e., functional reading ability, may indicate the lack or inadequate mastery of skills, inability to apply known skills, or inappropriate choice of reading material at a given stage of reading development. These problems also can usually be uncovered and evaluated through re-examination.

By way of summarizing our discussion of the criterion-referenced assessment and instructional approach to reading, we review again the

five major steps involved.

1. Identification of essential skills
2. Statement of objectives
3. Examination of individual skill development
4. Identification and implementation of appropriate teaching/learning activities
5. Evaluation of results.

Obviously this approach, like all others, is not foolproof; it will be as good or as poor as the planning and effort that go into it. However, I am fully convinced that the criterion-referenced approach is an efficient and effective approach to teaching reading and that it represents a sound and responsible answer to the concerns of accountability.

In conclusion, I again point out that I see the back-to-basics movement as only one manipulation of a larger, more general trend towards accountability. I feel relatively sure that you will have to deal with accountability and its consequences within the next few years. My own experience leads me to believe that it can serve a useful, productive role and provide a worthwhile contribution to our field, or it can be a threat resulting in frustration, anxiety, and misunderstanding. Its impact and its effectiveness will largely depend on the insight with which it is met and the wisdom with which it is carried out.

As it relates to the teaching of reading, I believe the criterion-referenced approach is completely compatible with the concepts of accountability. In addition, it offers a viable and practical approach to teaching reading. It does not provide all of the answers but I am confident that appropriately implemented, it can offer a significant contribution.

APPENDIX A

LEVEL A. The child:

1. Listens for rhyming elements
   a. Words
   b. Phrases and verses
2. Notices likenesses and differences
   a. Pictures (shapes)
   b. Letters and numbers
   c. Words and phrases
3. Distinguishes colors
4. Listens for initial consonants

LEVEL B. The child:

1. Has a basic sight vocabulary
2. Follows left to right sequence
3. Has phonic analysis skills
   a. Consonant sounds
      1. Beginning consonant sounds
      2. Ending consonant sounds
   b. Beginning consonant sounds
   c. Rhyming elements
   d. Short vowels
   e. Simple consonant digraphs
4. Has structural analysis skills
   a. Compound words
   b. Contractions
   c. Base words and endings
   d. Plurals
   e. Possessive forms

LEVEL C. The child:

1. Has an expanded sight vocabulary
2. Has phonic analysis skills
   a. Consonants and their variant sounds
   b. Beginning consonant blends
   c. Vowel sounds
      1. Long vowel sounds
      2. Vowel plus *r*
      3. *a* plus *l*
      4. *a* plus *w*
      5. Diphthongs *oi, oy, ou, ow, ew*
      6. Long and short *oo*
   d. Vowel generalizations
      1. Short vowel generalizations
      2. Silent *e* generalization
      3. Two vowels together generalization
      4. Final vowel generalization
   e. Common consonant digraphs
3. Has structural analysis skills
   a. Base words with prefixes and suffixes
   b. More difficult plural forms
4. Distinguishes among homonyms, synonyms, and antonyms
   a. Homonyms
   b. Synonyms and antonyms
5. Has independent and varied Word Attack skills
6. Chooses appropriate meaning of multiple meaning words

LEVEL D. The child:

1. Has an expanded sight vocabulary
2. Has phonic analysis skills
   a. Three-letter consonant blends
   b. Simple principles of silent letters
3. Has structural analysis skills
   a. Syllabication
   b. Accent
   c. Unaccented schwa
   d. Possessive forms

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LANGUAGE IN TEACHER EDUCATION

John Collerson

In recent years there has been increasing attention given to the place of language in English teaching and to the use of language in teaching in all curriculum areas. There is no doubt that all schools, from kindergarten to senior secondary, are places where language features prominently and in many complex ways. People in the community sometimes comment on what schools are doing about language or about some aspect of it such as reading, spelling, written expression or speech. Teachers themselves comment; some express concern, even despair, about these same things or about the prevalence of usage like "We seen yez" or the migrant child's use of his mother tongue at home. Teachers also sometimes express doubts about the usefulness of their preservice preparation to equip them to meet the language demands of their role.

This paper is concerned with the place of language study in the education of teachers. That is, all teachers, not just English teachers, and not just secondary teachers. To be sure, emphases and priorities may differ for different groups of prospective teachers, but all teachers use language in their teaching and all can influence their pupils' language development. So all teachers, whatever their subject and level, need to have a clear understanding of the role played by language in the teaching and learning of their curriculum and of the contribution they can make to the language development of the pupils.

The central focus of the paper may be summed up in questions such as these: What kind of language preparation do teachers need? What do teachers need to know about language? What do teachers need to be able to do with language? We will begin to answer these questions by identifying objectives for a language programme and we will then consider in some detail what such a programme might involve. Some aspects of the implementation of the programme will also be briefly considered. We will not deal directly with methods of language teaching in schools though presuppositions about these underly some of the discussion. Nor will we deal directly with methods of teaching in the teacher education programme itself, though inevitably some of the points made in this paper will have implications for such methods.

However, before going any further we should recognise that some answers or partial answers have already been offered and are available in various places for our consideration. The Bullock Report chapter on

Initial Training (ch. 23)[1] includes examples of three courses for the preparation of students in language and reading and the Open University course in Language and Learning is widely available in the form of a series of course booklets and a source book.[2] David Scarborough in **Language Study and Teacher Training**[3] publishes the results of a survey of provisions for language in Britain in 1972 and makes his own recommendations for such language study. Recently three lecturers in Canada, Bryant Fillion, Frank Smith and Merrill Swain, have provided their answer to the question: "What should language teachers know about language?" in "Language 'Basics' for Language Teachers: Towards a Set of Universal Considerations."[4] In Australia, Helen Tebble of the State College of Victoria at Frankston has published a fairly detailed account of her course in a paper entitled "Language Studies in Teacher Education",[5] and there are courses in language for teachers at various other C.A.E.s and universities. At the postgraduate level there are M.A. courses in language for teachers provided by the English department at the University of Sydney and directed by Assoc. Prof. R.D. Eagleson. Various books on the teaching of English include chapters on language. For example, the recently published **English in Secondary Schools: Today and Tomorrow** (ed. K.D. Watson and R.D. Eagleson)[6] includes a section on "What Teachers Need to Know about Language"; at the primary and infants levels there are comparable chapters in books such as **Teaching the New English in Primary Schools** (ed. H.M. Saxby and C. Turney)[7] and **English for the Children of the Global Village** (P. Lamb et al.).[8] All these statements and courses give some indication of how the questions we are concerned with have been answered recently.

Identifying the Objectives

In order to determine what a language programme for teachers should be trying to achieve, at least two factors should be taken into account. The first is the type of language study that the prospective teachers have already done when they enter their teacher education programme. The second factor is the language demands of the teaching role.

1. U.K. Department of Education and Science, **A Language for Life**, Report of the Committee of Inquiry . . . under the Chairmanship of Sir Alan Bullock, London, H.M.S.O., 1975.
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3. **Themes in Education** No.32, University of Exeter Institute of Education, 1973.
4. **Language Arts**, Vol.53, No.7, October, 1976, 740-745.
5. **Linguistic Communications** (Working Papers of the Linguistic Society of Australia) No. 16, 1976, pp.139-165.
6. Sydney, E.T.A. of N.S.W., 1977.
7. Sydney, Ian Novak, 1974.
8. Sydney, Angus and Robertson, 1973.

Most students entering teacher education programmes have not previously done any systematic study of language and have not had the chance to subject popular notions of language to critical scrutiny. The few exceptions are students who have done some sound language work in senior high school and students who enter a Dip. Ed. programme having done substantial work in English language or linguistics in their degree.

Teaching makes many demands on a teacher's knowledge of language and competence in using it. While there are clearly some differences in the language requirements of infants grades from those of senior secondary, there is no rigid boundary in language concerns across the K to 12 spectrum. Teachers at all levels are concerned with helping children to get meanings from the printed page, for example, or to make meanings through speech and writing. All teachers will be concerned to make many opportunities for their pupils to use language through reading and listening and through writing and speaking, to encourage the pupils to make the most of these opportunities and to provide in this way a rich and varied experience of language as a basis for the pupils' developing competence. It is also necessary for teachers to help pupils with particular points of language usage, spelling, punctuation, reading and with higher levels of language organisation in essays and other types of writing which might be used in the senior secondary school. Moreover, all teachers should be aware of the ways language is used in learning and of the value of exploratory talk amongst pupils and of first draft writing as a means of expanding one's understanding.

In view of the crucial part played by language at all levels of schooling and the consequent demands on teachers' language expertise, a heavy responsibility rests on the teacher education programme for providing appropriate language preparation. This should be designed to produce teachers:

1. who can use language competently themselves, that is, teachers who can write with assurance, speak confidently and effectively, who are perceptive readers and attentive listeners. It would be good to be able to say: "He who can does . . . and teaches."
2. who have a good knowledge of language, what it consists of and how it functions in the community, especially how we use language in human interaction (especially in the classroom) and the part played by language in learning.
3. who can accept each person's language for what it is as well as being aware of community attitudes to various types of language.
4. who can understand the processes by which children acquire and develop their language (or languages).

In short the teacher's language expertise involves competence,

knowledge, tolerance and understanding. Teachers who have such qualities should be able to:

1. understand and appreciate their pupils' use of language.
2. contribute to the development of their pupils' language competence.
3. choose appropriate methods of teaching, distinguishing between essential matters and surface considerations.
4. evaluate language texts, schemes, programmes and equipment.
5. justify what they are doing in the classroom before colleagues, parents, administrators and the interested public.

The Scope of Language Preparation for Teaching

What is being proposed here for the language preparation of teachers may be summed up under three broad headings. The preparation should develop and extend:

1. Knowledge of language.
2. Attitudes to language.
3. Competence in the use of language.

A great deal can be said about knowledge of language and it will be given some emphasis. Nevertheless, it should also be a basis for developing tolerance and understanding of people's language and it must be set in the context of experience of language in use leading to competence, confidence and even enthusiasm for using language.

Each of these broad areas will now be discussed in turn.

Knowledge of Language

The teacher needs to know more about language than his pupils do. This was true even when language was taught in a very structured and sequential way. In these days of relatively unstructured approaches to language teaching in schools, much more is expected of the teacher's knowledge of language.

At this stage it is tempting just to list a series of topics within this general area and to make out a case for each one's inclusion. Yet we should consider whether students should be presented with a single approach to language based on a coherent and unified theoretical structure, or, alternatively, a kind of eclectic smorgasbord of ideas on language. There is something to be said for the latter approach; it is more flexible and can be easily developed and modified.

However, there are also advantages in having a broad theoretical framework for a course on language so that the various aspects of language can be clearly seen in relation to one another. An example of such a framework is Halliday's concept of three levels of language:

1. Meanings

2. Words and structures.
3. Speech/writing.

Halliday argues that language is essentially a system of meanings, which can be expressed by means of words (or morphemes) and grammatical structures which in turn can be realised either in speech or in writing. It is useful to be aware of these levels and how they are related to each other. In thinking about language, students and teachers sometimes confuse them. For example, spelling and vocabulary are often treated together (children being asked to learn to spell words not yet well established in their vocabulary) and reading is sometimes thought to be spelling in reverse. Awareness of the three levels would provide a useful basis for a teacher's check-list to ensure that language teaching gives adequate scope for development of all levels.

Knowledge of language can be considered in terms of four main areas and these will be discussed in turn. The order in which they are presented here is not meant to indicate a necessary order for presentation in a course. As all these topics are interrelated, when they are presented in an actual course there may be a much greater degree of synthesis than this paper implies.

1. *Components of the System.* To begin with it is necessary for the teacher to have some understanding of the components of language at each level. Consideration of the various sub-systems will also provide a framework of descriptive terms which will be useful for other parts of the course. The prospective teacher should have some understanding of meaning and the way conventions of meaning are established and change. This can lead on to consideration of vocabulary, including such things as levels of vocabulary in use, morphemes and word structure, dictionaries, the extent of individual vocabularies and the relationship between vocabulary and experience.

Grammar is not only an important area of language structure but is also something of a Pandora's box and should be kept in perspective. In the first place it should be said that teachers should have a good knowledge of English grammar, though not primarily for teaching to the pupils but rather for the insight it gives into the way language is organised and used. Student teachers should be able to see that there is a difference between being able to describe language in grammatical terms and being able to use the language effectively, and that the one does not lead to the other. Nevertheless, it is useful for teachers and pupils to share a small number of grammatical terms and the teacher should be able to see them in a wider context of grammatical knowlege. It seems that what is needed is a sound course in English grammar that draws the best from both traditional and modern sources and which is linked to the functions in which language is used. It should emphasise that traditional and modern grammars have much in common but that there are some things that are better handled in modern grammar than in traditional. Such an approach is exemplified in **A Grammar of**

Contemporary English (R. Quirk et al.) and its associated works.[9] The greatest difficulty is that there is not enough time in the normal teacher education programme for such a presentation of grammar to be given.

The remaining level of language organisation encompasses the speech and writing systems. Teachers should have a good knowledge of both and especially the relationships between speech and writing both at the level of phoneme/grapheme and at higher levels. Knowledge of phonics should help to avoid some of the nonsense that masquerades as phonics and give insight into that aspect of reading and into spelling. One way of developing insight into the spoken language is to teach phonetic transcription; it takes a little time but has clear benefits in freeing students from a spelling based perception of pronunciation.

2. *Language in Use.* This encompasses a whole range of related issues that are of central importance for teachers of English. These issues are concerned with the meanings that a person makes with language and the way in which his language is related to his experience, way of life, society and culture. They include the functions and uses of language and variation of language according to purpose and situation. This is related to regional and social variation (also discussed below under "Attitudes to Language"), individual variation and the processes of language change. Some understanding of the bilingual situation, where variation extends across two or more languages, is important for all teachers since almost all are likely to be teaching bilingual pupils. All these issues influence the individual's communicative competence and they have wide implications for teaching.

3. *Language Development.* This should include some consideration of how children initially acquire language and how it develops during their years of schooling and beyond. Such an important area underlies much of what we attempt in English language and prospective teachers should be aware of what it involves.

4, *Language in Education.* This area includes a number of issues which arise from the previous topics and which focus more directly on the teaching situation. There is the relationship between language and thought, and the role of language in learning (including the value of exploratory talk and first draft writing) and the nature of classroom discourse.

In addition to these four main areas there are others which may receive separate treatment or which may be incorporated in other areas. The language of literature, for example, is an important topic but one which is best catered for in literature courses. Another topic is language in relation to other means of communication. The history of the

9. R. Quirk et al., **A Grammar of Contemporary English**, London, Longman, 1972; R. Quirk and S. Greenbaum, **A University Grammar of English**, Longman, 1973; G. Leech and J. Svartvik, **A Communicative Grammar of English**, Longman, 1975.

language is probably most useful if it focusses on general trends rather than details, and on recent or current changes, though some knowledge of earlier periods is useful for understanding aspects of spelling and vocabulary.

And so it goes on. Readers will no doubt want to expand each section or add a few more topics of their own. The list seems endless, and that is one of the problems with this kind of course. Time is never unlimited and there always seems to be a great deal to include. This is a point which we will return to later in the paper.

Attitudes to Language

A student teacher taking a class for some phonics practice was asking her pupils to suggest words which ended with *-op* such as *top, mop, stop,* etc. One child offered the word *cop.* The student teacher replied: "Oh, we don't want that kind of word. That's not a proper word. We only want proper words here." The notion that colloquial and slang words are somehow not proper or not part of the language and that the only real words are those in "the dictionary" is widely held by students entering teacher education courses. Not surprisingly, perhaps, they hold beliefs about language which reflect those of the community at large. It is hoped that in a teacher education programme students would come to see language from other viewpoints besides the popular beliefs and attitudes with which they may have entered the programme.

It is true that with some students that broadening of viewpoint has already begun. A survey of attitudes to language conducted amongst students entering Milperra C.A.E. at the beginning of 1976 revealed a very wide range of attitudes from the very traditional to the other extreme. Yet over 70% of students believed that *can* should not be used in asking for permission, that a preposition is not a good word to end a sentence with, that teachers should not let children "get away with" uneducated usage or use American spellings. Discussion with students shows that some hold to these remnants of traditional teaching very strongly.

Nor is it easy to change such attitudes merely by talking about the view of language which they entail. Many students readily accept that different kinds of language are appropriate for different circumstances; variation of register seems plausible, even obvious. They also accept the legitimacy of regional variation. What they do not readily accept is that social variation is just another kind of language variation and that from a linguistic viewpoint each such variant is appropriate in its own context.

Students may accept such notions in general terms but not the specific point that it might be appropriate in some circumstances for some children to use "youse" or "He ain't done nothing". No amount of sociolinguistic data will convince them otherwise. They either do not see the relevance of such data or even if they can appreciate the point intellectually, they find it hard to detach themselves from attitudes

they have as members of the community. As Barbara Horvarth has pointed out,[10] people who take a linguistic view of the variation of language are also members of the community and are prone to have the same kinds of attitudes and prejudices about language that everyone else has. It is just that they can at times look at language variants from a linguistic perspective.

Yet for many students this is not easy to do. They find it hard to accept that non-standard usage is part of the language at all. They have had a lot drummed into them at school and much of this is a reinforcement of views widely held in the community. However, in a teacher education programme there should be some attempt to reduce the prejudices, broaden the attitudes and at least raise the consciousness of the students to the nature of linguistic variations so that they may be able to approach their pupils' language with sympathetic understanding. The fact that as teachers they will be concerned with developing in their pupils the competence to use standard written English when it is needed is a separate issue; it is an educational and a social issue which should be seen as distinct from the purely linguistic viewpoint.

Competence and Experience

A third aspect of the language preparation of teachers, and especially English teachers, is their own competence to use the language. The essential basis for competence in language is experience of language and experience in general. This area of competence is the basis for linking English teachers' language preparation to their preparation in literature, and indeed to other things such as writing, speech and drama.

Literature has always been an important part of the preparation of English teachers and rightly so, of course. Yet experience with writing and encouragement for the students to find interest and pleasure in writing have not always been given to prospective teachers, though they ought to be, for several reasons. There is, firstly, the sheer satisfaction that comes from writing itself. Secondly, there is the contribution that writing makes to understanding literature and to understanding children writing. But in this context it should also be said that experience of writing and competence in writing are important for a student's understanding of language. Experience of writing, together with speaking, listening, etc., provides an operational understanding, a feel for the details.

This paper has given some weight to the student's knowledge of language. But this knowledge needs to be set in the context of a good deal of experience of language in use. The teacher needs to be a good writer himself – or at least experienced writer. He needs to have a feel for the use of language in self-expression in writing and in speaking, experience of wrestling with words to get a particular effect on the reader, or of playing with language for one's own enjoyment and relish. This is an important aspect of the teacher's language preparation;

10. In an address to the English Teachers' Association of N.S.W., 24th March, 1977.

knowledge of language without this rich experience would be rather arid.

Another aspect of student language competence is the competence required for doing tertiary courses, for example, competence in essay writing, in reading, in general usage of written English and in speech. This too is an important area of language competence, not so much for the young teacher as for the student teacher as student.

Integration

In the preparation of teachers of English and of other subjects, several different components can be identified of which language study is one. In the case of English teachers the components could be listed as follows:

1. Language study (knowledge, attitudes) including children's language development.
2. Development of competence in language use (speaking, writing).
3. Literature (reading experience, study of literature) including children's literature.
4. The teaching of English (extending to include language across the curriculum, language in learning):
   Essentially the teacher's role in the development of children's language competence.

These could all be dealt with in isolation but as each tends to contribute to the others they are probably better integrated. It is the demands of the teaching role (4) which establish the need for all the others. Yet how can the integration be effected? Does it mean subsuming all components into one course or offering several related courses concurrently within the one semester (or year) or in successive semesters? The integration is important yet one cannot do everything at once: too much integration may simply lead to a watering down of each component.

The need to relate theory to practice is also involved here. If students are to learn about language because it is relevant to teaching, how closely can the learning about language be related to learning how to teach children to use language and to the experience of actually teaching children?

Implementation

A natural reaction to the kind of language preparation envisaged in the foregoing pages is to say that it might be worth considering if one had unlimited time and ideal facilities. Quite clearly, in any actual institution there are limitations of staffing, time and resources and the language component in the teacher's preparation will necessarily be modified to suit local conditions and to fit in with all the other requirements of the programme.

Some kind of priority must be assigned to each potential part of the language programme. It is tempting to try to cover everything in the long list of things we believe students should know about, experience, read and write about and so on. Each item can be justified as an important part of the teacher's knowledge or experience, but there is not time to do them all, not even superficially, if students are to absorb them into their own understanding. To try to include everything would be disastrous. Anthony Jones commenting on teacher education generally refers to ". . . a misguided and hopeless attempt to 'cover', academically, everything that might be relevant to a teacher's career."[11] The comment can be applied just as pertinently to the specific yet growing area of language study.

This is quite a serious problem, not just for the teacher's language preparation but for teacher education programmes in general. What can be done about it? Three kinds of solution might be considered. They are presented in general terms; the details might be worked out differently in different places.

1. Determine a strict order of priority and cover a limited number of topics. The remaining areas must be left for inservice and for the students' own initiative.
2. Determine a good starting point and allow students to work at their own pace in various possible directions. In this way different students might work in different directions. (A modification of this would be to have several "starting points" or points of focus each introduced at a different stage of the course).
3. Present a course which deals with certain high priority areas but which is designed to equip students to continue, when they go out as teachers, to observe and study language, to reflect on it, to use it and thus as teachers to develop their own knowledge and competence in this important area.

The particular areas given priority might differ from one place to another depending, for example, on whether the students are preparing for general primary teaching, for secondary English or for other secondary subjects. Nevertheless, there are many important topics which are common to the needs of all teachers.

Conclusion

There are some institutions where much of this type of language preparation is offered as an elective course. While this is better than nothing it must be said that language is so much a part of teaching and learning that it should be studied as an essential component of the preservice education of all teachers. They are all in a position to promote or retard the language development of their pupils.

11. In A. Jones and J. Mulford, **Children Using Language: An Approach to English in the Primary School**, London, O.U.P., 1971, p. 213.

It is important for teachers not only to know about language, its nature and functions and how it develops in pupils, but also to be able to accept their pupils' language with wisdom and tolerance while offering them the best opportunities for developing their language. Yet even this knowledge and this tolerance are not enough in themselves; teachers must also be competent in their own writing and speaking and in their reading and listening. Ideally they should find such activities compelling and fulfilling. Teachers must be able to stand back and look at language in a detached way; they must also become immersed in language through experience of its use.

LITERATURE IN TEACHER EDUCATION

David Homer

> . . . in the **Knight's Tale** (G. Chaucer, 1390) Emelye is supposed to be a symbol. I wrote this on and off for something like five years and my total ignorance of the psychological process by which a symbol is supposed to work, the origins of virgin cults, the functions such a cult might have had for Chaucer or his audience, what remnants of it live in my consciousness as a middle-class male and why, never stopped me from 'doing very well at Chaucer'. I was ignorant. So what?[1]

There are a great many ways in which the study of Literature can and does contribute to Teacher Education, and to try to survey them all would be an enormous task. So I am going to limit my discussion to five related points, one of which will be elaborated in more detail than the others because in making it I want to describe one of the courses that I teach at Salisbury C.A.E.

These points are related to a single theme. I want to argue that wherever Literature is used in Teacher Education programmes, in Academic courses, in Curriculum Studies or elsewhere, it must be used in ways 'continuous' with its use in the schools. I want also to argue that this is quite possible without any compromise of intellectual standards in Teacher Education, and also that if we are serious about creating such an emphasis towards Literary study then it will be linguistic in nature.

One of the aims of Teacher Education should be to support innovative practices in the schools. Under the influence of the Language Across the Curriculum 'movement', a major policy innovation in Australian education over recent years, many schools have shown a determination to change their approaches to English and the Language Arts.[2] They are moving towards their own formulations of aims and

1. J. Spriggs, *'Doing Eng. Lit.'* in T. Pateman (ed.), **Counter Course**, Penguin, Harmondsworth, 1972, p. 222.

2. The kind of 'influences' I have in mind are represented by the work of the variously named Language and Learning units established by the State Education Departments, the general interest in the work of James Britton, Douglas Barnes and Nancy Martin which exists among Australian teachers, and such publications as the South Australian Secondary English Curriculum Committee's **Language and English.**

practices, rather than following the structuring of disciplines at Tertiary level. Many University Departments of Education and C.A.E.'s now offer courses which are in tune with the schools' interest in language and learning 'across the curriculum' and I want to suggest that the study of Literature can have an important place in such programmes. The argument will be presented under five headings:

1. Current and potential roles for the study of Literature in Teacher Education.
2. English and the Language Arts in the Schools.
3. Conflicting views on 'the proper nature of English'.
4. A linguistic approach to Literature for Teacher Education.
5. Changes of emphasis in Literary study.

Finally, I intend to limit myself here to imaginative literature – poetry, prose fiction and drama – although I see other forms such as journalism and biography as equally important. Having thus limited myself it is clear that I shall be mainly talking about English courses and their design in a Teacher Education context.

The Roles of Literary Studies in Teacher Education

The study of Literature in Teacher Education is generally agreed to fulfil two major roles. First, it is said to contribute to the personal development of the prospective teacher who has the opportunity, through literature, to broaden his experience, engage his mind with controversial issues and acquire skills and methodologies which, it is hoped, will heighten his enthusiasm for literature. This is the classic claim made for a liberal education. How successfully it has been achieved is open to considerable doubt, as the Bullock Report is moved to suggest.[3] On the other hand, at the level of objectives, a great many people involved with Education would say that Literary Studies have an important role in their work because they contribute to personal development as well as imparting knowledge, thus fitting a person to teach. Unfortunately, as John Hajnal suggests

> . . . essays are usually the main form of work the Arts student has to produce. The essay is the main instrument by which he is required to organise his mind and the material he has gathered in reading, tutorials or lectures. An Arts degree is not infrequently a certificate that the student has . . . written essays of sufficient quantity and quality in his final examinations.[4]

This is still *largely* true of the *experience of literary studies* available to trainee teachers, although it is also true that many institutions are attempting to change. For the purposes of this paper it is sufficient

3. The Bullock Report, **A Language for Life**, H.M.S.O., London, 1975, p. 125.
4. J. Hajnal, **The Student Trap**, Penguin, Harmondsworth, 1972, p. 141.

to say that not only has this area of study been ideologically narrow in the range of critical and explanatory options which it has given students, but that it has also been linguistically narrow in that the lecture/tutorial/essay methodology offers a very restricted range of language situations and hence limits the number of language functions they can exercise and develop, while exploring literature. Literature's potential for fostering personal development is thus subject to linguistic restraint.

Second, Literary Studies are assumed to equip the future teacher to operate in specific subject areas – those of Secondary English and Primary Language Arts. The body of skills, knowledge and attitudes they impart are seen as providing part of what a teacher will need in the area of content (particularly with respect to Secondary teaching), and attitudes towards the study of literature (at all levels). When complemented with Curriculum Studies/Methods units they are thus expected to contribute to the 'how to' side of a teacher's preparation. I will argue later in the paper that the two areas might be much more closely integrated, and the edges between them blurred, to the benefit of both.

So traditionally, Literary Studies have been seen as useful to Teacher Education in both a general and specific sense, but the methodology of the subject area, and often the very way Teacher Education awards are structured has forced a separation of the two roles, to the detriment of both. A wider concept of 'The Study of Literature' (i.e. a change in emphasis to broaden the areas of study to which Literature can contribute) seems to be required, especially as many institutions already seem keen to develop a more integrated approach to the process of Teacher Education.

What might such 'new' roles be? Two brief examples must suffice. Children's literature courses are well established in Teacher Education as *literary studies* but the field has obvious potential as content in Educational Theory and Psychology areas as well. For example, Paula Fox's **Blowfish Live in the Sea** and Philippa Pearce's **A Dog So Small** are excellent studies of the impact of family/urban life on late childhood, while Alan Garner's **Red Shift**, Ivan Southall's **Josh** and William Mayne's **A Game of Dark** explore many problems of adolescent identity, relationships at a personal and sexual level and attitudes to authority. Many of the issues at present discussed in comparatively abstract ways in Education courses can gain added relevance by being illustrated from imaginative literature.

This is one level of integration. At a more general level, a great many key issues are generated by literature which lead to the kind of processes of enquiry (basically linguistic processes) which are the feature of General Studies courses. Novels and plays present issues at a linguistic level (e.g. through conversations between characters) which lead to a need to discover answers across a wide range of disciplines.[5]

5. I have recently argued for a 'linguistically integrated' approach to General Studies courses in two places:
   i) K. Watson and R. Eagleson (eds.), **English in Secondary Schools: Today and Tomorrow**, Reed Education, Sydney, 1977, pp. 342-60.
   ii) *'Two Novels in Search of a Humanities Course'* in **Opinion**, S.A.E.T.A. Journal, May 1977.

Imaginative literature could be the central integrating feature of a whole Teacher Education programme.

English and the Language Arts in the Schools

During the 1970's the study of English in the schools has seen the consolidation of the changes wrought in the 1960's, and their being given a firm linguistic basis lacking in the 'Holbrook era'. It may be dangerous to equate what is written at the theoretical and curriculum planning levels too closely with the practice evident in schools, but there is a good deal of evidence to suggest that Garth Boomer is right when he says

> There is a growing awareness that language development is a whole school responsibility. English teachers are taking a lead in opening up staff debate on this issue.[6]

The work of the N.C.E.T. in research, publishing and film making, the visits to Australia of people such as Britton, Barnes, Martin and Shuy, the interest in linguistic issues evidenced in **English in Australia** since 1970, the use of Schools Commission support for many conferences in the area, and the direct interest of the State Education Departments are just some of the symptoms suggesting that in Australia we are moving towards the creation of a linguistically aware teaching force at both Primary and Secondary level.

This is particularly true of teachers of English and the Language Arts and it may be necessary here to examine briefly the nature of the language theory which is influential in Australia in order to predict how it might influence the use of literature in schools.

It is not difficult to establish that the greatest influence on Australian English teachers' thinking about language has been the work of James Britton, Douglas Barnes, Nancy Martin and their colleagues. This work has provided a linguistic justification for the child centred educational philosophies which have been current at official levels in the past 20 years. It is useful to the teacher since in itself it suggests means by which it can be put into practice, and it is presented in books such as **Language, the Learner and the School, Understanding Children Writing** and **From Communication to Curriculum** in a way which involves the teacher-reader with familiar discourse, that of children's text, written and spoken. For example after a transcript of some girls' discussion of a short story, James Britton comments

> How much of this talk is simply 'for the record' – an effect of the presence of the microphone? Does any individual girl in fact represent ideas that she really subscribes to? Or is each of them merely offering common currency, the small change of talk among their elders? Alternatively, in a different

6. In Watson and Eagleson (eds.) op cit., p. 13.

> image are they doing more than taking a nice warm dip together in comfortable beliefs that they all hold, have all talked about often enough before. Is anything happening to anybody in this talk – is anybody changing or laying herself open to change?[7]

That is, Britton is asking the reader to think about the purposes of talk. The teacher is urged to take a view of language as a functional system used to fulfil a range of tasks 'in the world', a meaning-making process and as such the major means of learning. Further, teachers are asked to consider the situation in which learning takes place in school, including their roles as the audience for much of what the student writes or says.[8]

This is not to argue that the 'London' work has been exclusively influential in the schools, and on English teaching. The Schools Council **Language in Use** programme is used in many schools, supporting the socio-linguistic emphasis which is inherent in Britton et al. Many teachers say they find trouble in devising actual, practical programmes and activities from a book like **Language, the Learner and the School** (or any theory) but this charge cannot be levelled at **Language in Use** which stresses Halliday's notion that the concept 'language and social man' is a unified one and that a major failure of the schools

> can be traced to a lack of insight into the nature of the relationships between language and society: specifically, of the processes, which are very largely linguistic processes, whereby a human organism turns into a social being.[9]

Generally, then, the influential theory stresses an awareness of language and related context, of purpose within situation at school and in society at large. In general it encourages a teacher to promote the linguistic development of children by arranging for their language to have to meet the demands of a wide variety of situations for it sees that communicative competence develops through talking, writing, listening and speaking in and about the world.[10]

What then, are the implications of such theoretical stances for the

7. D. Barnes et al., **Language, the Learner and the School**, Penguin, Harmondsworth, 1971, p.85.

8. The work is too well known to require going into in detail here. Its fullest theoretical statement is in James Britton's *'What's the Use? A Schematic Account of Language Functions'* in A. Cashdan (ed.), **Language in Education**, Routledge and Kegan Paul, London, 1972, pp. 245-251.

9. M.A.K. Halliday, **Language and Social Man**, Longman, London, 1974.

10. As well as Halliday, the work of Dell Hymes is useful in understanding the factors which influence speech and meaning in set situations, e.g. '. . . one needs to understand the general patterns of communicative competence being acquired by children as background for understanding the outcome of the small fraction of communicative experience encountered by children in school', in D. Hymes *'Models for the Interaction of Language and Social Setting'* in **Journal of Social Issues**, XXIII, 2, 1967, p.16.

work done with Literature in schools? At the levels of both methodology and 'content' there seem to be a number of trends either becoming established or theoretically desirable.[11] As I argued in the preceding section, these concerns of the schools need to inform the decisions we make about the role of Literature in Teacher Education. In schools, we shall see, I think

- a wider and more open range of responses to literature both in written form and others e.g. drama, painting.
- greater emphasis not only on the production of the child's own literature, but on its examination and discussion as well.
- a wider audience for what the school produces both of and from Literature; a search in the community for both audience and content.
- in particular, a stress on the oral roles of literature; story telling and other performances.
- possibly a lean in the emphasis away from the study of Literature as a process of valuing, towards a process of understanding and explanation.
- the merging of the study of 'Language' and 'Literature' in a single process. This point requires a little elaboration. The work of Britton and Moffett (which underpins Britton's division of the 'Transactional' modes of language) stresses the close relationship between the use of language 'in the world' and 'in Literature', with the latter generalizing from and reflecting the former.[12] Thus novels, for example, can be seen as a rich source of language situations for study *as such*. Novels, e.g. **Cry, The Beloved Country** or **Catch – 22** can also be seen as utterances in context and related to their purpose. Other works may present linguistic problems as their central issues. For example Nicholas Fisk's **Trillions** faces the young reader with the language of politico-military power (and its reliance on euphemism) and an intriguing account of how Scott learns to communicate with the Trillions, which deals with matters central to understanding the nature of a language system.
- following from this a much greater insistence that imaginative literature should form the centre of integrated courses; that is, it will be used more to generate enquiry into the nature of man and society.

These trends are put forward tentatively.[13] I do not suggest that many of the roles which Literature currently plays in schools will come

11. These are illustrated in many of the articles in Watson and Eagleson's book (op cit.) and the 'Resources' section of **English in Australia**, among many places.
12. 'When Tom speaks or writes spontaneously to Dick, he makes . . . decisions (about self, subject and audience) more or less unconsciously; when we behave like an author we pay more attention to such decisions. When we act as a reader, we need to know how such decisions are made.' James Moffett, **Teaching the Universe of Discourse**, Houghton Mifflin, New York, 1968, pp. 146-7.
13. And, no doubt, as those who know me would understand, with a certain amount of wishful thinking.

to a sudden end. They do, however, follow logically from current theory, and they do mean I think, a 'New English' which is not the 'New English' we were talking about in 1970.

Conflicting Views on 'The Proper Nature of English'.

There is not space to examine this matter fully here but it needs to be mentioned that among teachers (at any level) there has never been agreement as to what the subject 'English' properly should encompass. Now I am not talking just about English (though the debate about English clouds the issue) in this paper, either in relation to schools or Teacher Education. Nor am I urging that the study of Literature is turned into Sociology but rather that in all educational arenas Literature can serve a number of purposes as itself, without pretending to be anything else.

One of the problems for teachers who want to argue for the approach to Literature so far elaborated is that neither Britton and his colleagues, nor the **Language in Use** team have said very much about the role of Literature in the kind of education they envisage. This, I believe, is a real gap in their work, and it leaves them open to trenchant criticism. For example, Fred Inglis in **Ideology and the Imagination** attacks **Language in Use**.

> In this world the preoccupation with appropriateness which transpires from so much of the work looks more like a latter day preoccupation with 'talking properly', a sort of technocrat's elocution lesson, than an adequate model of language and its transformations. It is precisely this series of specialisms which the English teacher, in trying to build a human idiom with his pupils is resisting. On these terms the unit of work for the study of religious language (for example) has no means of telling the difference between Alan Bennett's sermon in **Beyond the Fringe** and John Donne's at Whitehall. Work of this kind *endorses* the perpetuation of stereotypes. And its hierarchies of 'competence' leave no place for a directness of utterance which subverts or flouts the given roles.[14]

Inglis also condemns Britton as merely giving us

> the liturgy of our modern and educational neo-liberalism: the nervous decency, the generosity and helplessness, the anxious rejection of moral decision and diagnosis . . .[15]

14. F. Inglis, **Ideology and the Imagination**. Cambridge University Press, London, 1975, p.78.

15. Ibid. p.85.

Now Peter Doughty has in several places strongly defended 'a linguistic approach to language study',[16] arguing that it is impossible to conduct any study of language without acknowledging the values 'contained' by language used within a given context. His answer, and mine, to Inglis is "not necessarily", but there is something else to be said in relation to Education through Literature. It *is* true that the writing on Language in Education has largely ignored the 'how to' of teaching Literature but this is not to say that it cannot be done. It seems to me that Teacher Education should be concerned to 'show how', to develop work such as that of Britton and Doughty, (using current linguistic and sociolinguistic theory) to the point where it can provide an adequate account of the curriculum which includes Literary Studies, and provides the necessary aims, topics, methods and materials.[17] One way for individual lecturers to 'show how' is to do it themselves in their own courses. At the level of a total institution it should be possible to have language policies which relate to those current in the schools, and to define courses (in which Literature would have a role) which derive from them.

As I suggested, the debate about English clouds the debate about the use of Literature. Everyone, students and staff alike has an idea about 'the proper nature of English', and the debate has a history as old as the subject (which isn't very long, really). But this should not stop us from thinking about the use of Literature in other areas, as well as assessing the value of our English courses to future teachers.

Case Study: A Linguistic Approach to Literature for Teacher Education. The Salisbury C.A.E. English 1 Course.[18]

In the previous sections I have indicated my belief that the linguistic theory which is currently influencing schools is an innovation worthy of support by the Training Institutions which can make their work much more 'continuous' with school practice. There are problems with the theory – and practical obstacles in many institutions but they are not insurmountable. I want now to describe the English 1 course at Salisbury C.A.E. which is an attempt to put these claims into practice, in particular for primary trainees, some of whom might do only one year of English in their Diploma course, but for other students as well, some of whom might be embarking on four years of English. At Levels 2, 3 and 4 students at Salisbury select from a number of options as well as taking a core-course in literary and linguistic theory, but in

16. P. Doughty, *'Pupils also use language to live'*, in **English in Education**, VI, 1, 1972, pp.18-28.

17. This is merely a specific example of a general problem in Teacher Education, namely, how to 'use' theory taught in Professional courses in the classroom/school. For example, if you think Halliday is right about the functional nature of language development, what do you *do* in the classroom (any classroom) to make sure it happens?

18. The course described in this section has evolved over a number of years. At various times a number of staff have been involved in its growth – Bill Murray, Keith Gallasch, Brian Chambers, Deborah McCulloch, Jackie Cook and myself.

Level 1 there is only one course which serves as both an introduction to areas taken up later on and as a course in itself.

The course is informed by two major considerations. The first is that we wanted to create one suitable for future teachers, which would give them a rich source of ideas for methods and approaches to English or Primary Language Arts. At the same time we felt there was a need to be in touch with the schools' and our own growing interest in Language in Education principles. So the approach to literature taken is a linguistic one, and by and large we use Modern Literature (with a few exceptions, such as the current semester when **Robinson Crusoe** and **The Moonstone** are included). Methodologically the course is based on workshops, each two hour session being devoted to a number of different activities, and allowing for considerable flexibility. A session might, for example, begin with a role-playing session, move to a short lecture and finish with some small group discussion and reporting back. Much of the discussion and creative work (e.g. poetry writing) is reported on large sheets of paper which can be displayed and used by students for inclusion in their course journals. Often these sheets become places for dialogue-student/lecturer or student/student.

Assessment is based on three different kinds of activity. Each semester students write two papers on some of the themes and works on the course. Second, each student keeps a journal/work book as a record of the course. This journal contains both work done and set in workshops, and extension work and research of the student's choosing. Finally, each student works as a member of a group on two or three texts to create a performance which explicates certain contrasting or comparative aspects of them. This part of the work is assessed by the rest of the class, with the lecturers having the same 'voting rights' as students.

Before I describe some of the course 'content' it needs to be said that the workshop format allows considerable methodological flexibility, and the assessment procedures allow, as far as possible within Salisbury's overall system for processing results, for students to make a number of kinds of response to literature. As I indicated earlier, our approach is 'linguistic' so it is necessary to teach a certain amount of literary and linguistic theory *as part of the study of texts.* This semester, the following texts are being used:

Moffett J. (ed),	**Points of View.**
Walsh C (ed),	**Modern Poets.**
Defoe D.	**Robinson Crusoe.**
Collins W.	**The Moonstone.**
Fowles J.	**The French Lieutenant's Woman.**
Fox P.	**Blowfish Live in the Sea.**
Southall I.	**Josh.**
Albee E.	**Whose Afraid of Virginia Woolf.**
Pinter H.	**The Birthday Party.**

These have been chosen according to a number of criteria, mainly

to represent a variety of narrational modes, some linking of themes and a variety of genres and movements. Our aim by the end of the course is that students will have a variety of means, linguistic and extra-linguistic, to approach a text, moving from the establishment of the narrational mode, the use of this to help describe the psychology and action ('what happens') and establish the nature of the text. Finally in the light of this they can move to interpretation, the meaning of the text.

In many ways the examination of narrational mode is our most important emphasis. We begin with some of the stories in **Points of View** and return to the anthology several times during the year. Moffett's notes to the stories and his scheme of classification of narrative modes are extremely useful, especially since an understanding of the stories is seen to rest with the communicative competence of the reader, as Moffett says:

> The fictional ways people tell stories are modelled on the real-life ways they talk and learn.[19]

So the approach taken is to consider first the way language and situation are related, and this is done in a number of ways, through role-playing and varying the situation, reading aloud in groups, story telling and writing as well as the more conventional discussion and short lectures. In a lot of the small group discussion the lecturer moves from group to group so any one group will be 'on its own' for a lot of the time, a factor which we have found to *promote* discussion. With the role playing (and other aspects of the work involving performance) the emphasis is on attention to the audience in an attempt to explain what has been discovered.

So in order to arrive at 'who is speaking, who to, how, why, when and where' there are a number of methods available. Two such exercises can be cited as examples.

One is a writing exercise. Each group of students has a picture and an envelope containing a number of different sets of instructions about how to write the picture (See Appendix for a typical example). Each person draws a set of instructions and then, keeping them hidden, writes according to them. The each person in the group reads all of the other scripts. Finally, the group takes each script in turn and tries to work out, from the evidence in the 'story' what the writer's instructions were. They are talking about 'point of view', and about clues they need to pick up when examining narration in a story.

For example, in following this exercise with an examination of Katherine Mansfield's story **The Lady's Maid**, it is not hard for them to establish, in this dramatic monologue, the difference between the maid's overt and underlying meanings,[20] infer the replies her audience might be giving (which are not part of the story), and finally realise the

19. J. Moffett and K. McElheny (eds.), **Points of View**, Mentor Books, New York, 1966, p.xii.

20. For example '. . . whenever someone new has been to see us and my lady says afterwards, "Ellen, give me my little red book," I feel quite wild I do . . .' *means* 'I am trusted by my mistress'.

tragedy of her life and the mistress's role in it. In a similar way we might work from some role-playing to a written exercise on Cynthia Rich's story **My Sister's Marriage** in which the (fictional) situation has a marked effect on how the narrator tells the audience about her family relationships in order to elicit sympathy and self-assurance.

The exercise in this case was for the groups to appoint a story teller who had to operate in a particular situation e.g. – In the cafeteria, around a table but the audience's attention is half distracted by an incident at another table. – Around a campfire at night. The audience is tired. etc. That is, the aim was to see that with 'I' narration the reader needs to be aware of several persons' purposes of speech, for example the teller, and those told about having different purposes, which need to be teased out to decide 'what has happened'. The whole process, of course, becomes more complicated with novels, for example **The Moonstone** presents a story told from a number of points of view and in several narrational modes. The theory from which the approach derives is provided by writers like Moffett and David Goldknopf,[21] and supported by the kind of work done in socio-linguistics by Dell Hymes, John Gumperz, Harvey Sacks[22] and others who have studied the nature of communicative events.

Having briefly indicated the way we approach the aims and design of an English course it remains to comment briefly on some other areas of theory which we have found useful. For example, narrational theory is also useful in examining poetry, as are simple stylistic methods such as taking note of performatives and the roles of pronouns in poetry. At the same time, knowledge of matters such as the *function* of metaphor are crucial. With drama and the novel some of the techniques of discourse analysis (e.g. attention to the application of closures, re-initiations) are useful in devising approaches to the texts.[23] Finally, students are introduced in the second semester of the course to different critical and explanatory approaches of a formal, socio-cultural and psychoanalytic nature. By and large the aim with individual works is to use the theory and the methodology which best seems to lead to profitable discussion, writing or other kinds of interpretation. We see our work having a good deal in common with several of the accounts of innovative Tertiary courses described in David Craig and Margot Heinemann's **Experiments in Teaching English**, though ours is consciously designed for future teachers. It is primarily a course of literary study, but it is also an introductory course in language study, and one in Methodology as well.

21. See D. Goldknopf, **The Life of the Novel**, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1972, Chapters 2 and 3.

22. For example, in D. Hymes and J. Gumperz (eds.) **Directions in Sociolinguistics**, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, New York, 1972. Articles by Dell Hymes, 'Models for the Interaction of Language and Social Life' and Harvey Sacks, 'On the Analyzability of Stories by Children'. Also much of this work is described, and its future scope suggested in J. Gumperz, *'Linguistic Anthropology in Society'*, in **American Anthropologist**, LXVI, 4, 1974, pp.785-796.

23. For example the work of Sinclair and Coulthard and Douglas Barnes on classroom interaction. Also Schegloff's work on sequencing.

Changes of Emphasis in the Study of Literature.

In concluding this paper I want to repeat that in arguing for such approaches and roles for Literature I have taken it beyond what is normally considered to be 'English' to suggest a wider role both in schools *and* Teacher Education.

It may be that we need to completely re-think what the role of Literature is to be in the Teacher Education of the 1980's in the light of what place it is likely to occupy in the curriculum as a whole. Reading a text with an eye to using it in a school curriculum is not the same as reading it for academic criticism (of whatever school) and is different again from reading for pleasure, so we need to design approaches which will assist prospective teachers do the first, without eliminating the other two.

I suggest this with a certain amount of trepidation. Having argued for approaches more in tune with what the schools are attempting I may leave myself open to accusations of merely wanting to use Teacher Education to maintain the schools' status quo. On the other hand, if we use change in one to support change in the other the charge cannot be maintained. Second, as I suggested in Section 3, Teacher Education has an important role in adding to and developing theory already being applied in the school.

If recent articles in **The Use of English** by Inglis, Rumsby and Holbrook[24] are any indication, what has been gained in the past few years for the schools is going to need defending. There seems to be in their work a determination not to understand what linguistic insight has done, and more importantly *can* do to assist students and teachers make useful meaning from the experience of education. It is with the 'can do' that my paper has been concerned, so to end with the same writer as we began,

We need

1. To treat literature as an active, value laden, opinion-full component in the debate about man.
2. To use literature as an opportunity to discover something of the range and kinds of experience available to man.
3. To discover how literature itself functions.
4. To discover how and why literature changes.[25]

We need 'The Study of Literature' more than we need 'English' and we need to recognise that there are many people other than English teachers who have worthwhile things to say about Literature.

24. R.L. Rumsby, *'Intentions and Outcomes'* 1 and 2 in **The Use of English**, XXVIII, 1 and 2, 1976. F. Inglis **'The Use of English and The Use of English'**, XXVIII, 3. D. Holbrook, **'An Unmitigated Disaster'**. XXVIII, 2. It seems to me that a major weakness in Inglis' more recent work is a failure *in fact* to provide any indication of what English in practical terms should be. He destroys, but does not elect.

24. Spriggs, op cit. p.233.

Appendix

The picture which goes with these instructions shows an old school in central London.

1. Once, when you were a child, this incident involved you. It was about fifteen years ago. Write the conversation you have with a friend which you have, when you tell him/her about the incident.

2. Write the thoughts of the adult in the scene, at the time it occurred.

3. You are sitting in the next room to the one shown in the picture, with someone you have never met before. You can hear, *but not see* what is going on. Write the conversation you have with this person.

4. You are the adult in the picture and have been asked to compile a report about your job. You have decided to use what you were doing at the time the picture was taken as an example to illustrate part of the report. Write that part of the report.

5. The child (or a child) shown in the picture comes home after experiencing what is shown happening. He or she tells mother about what happened. Write the conversation between mother and child from the point of view of the husband/father who is listening. That is, *he* is telling the story, about what he heard.

6. The picture shows a professionally trained person at work. During their training they would have read books about how to conduct their job. Write some paragraphs from an imaginary text book which would cover the kind of activity shown in the picture, which say how it should be conducted.

7. You are a parent who arrives to pick up your child from school. While you wait you can hear *but not see* this activity going on. Later you tell a friend about what you heard. Write this conversation.

TEACHING WRITING: A GREAT ADVANCE IS POSSIBLE

Bob Walshe

Standpoint. *Until the 1970s, teachers have not taught writing except in the limited sense of the 'one-shot draft' required by the exam system; and their dominant concern has been the correctness of the 'mechanics of writing' rather than the many other but less obvious components of writing such as content, organisation, or interest. We can now see that what has been lacking is an understanding of writing* **as process** *rather than as a relatively mechanical act. Since the first mention in* **English in Australia** *in 1970 of writing as process, there has been a swift explosion of knowledge, chiefly American and British, which offers abundant material from which to devise a vastly improved pedagogy of writing. As yet this material is mainly in journals – but in very few heads. So it needs to be swiftly disseminated: to lecturers in teacher education, to their students, to infants and primary teachers, to secondary English teachers and, across the curriculum, to other secondary teachers.*

Part 1 . . . The Problem

The 'old' English never began to teach the process of writing

'Indeed, to accept the reality of a process rather than an act of writing is to break through to an incredible, almost unconfrontable, truth about the teaching of writing in the schools: the schools have not been teaching writing all these years. What they've been teaching is a deformed sort of half-writing, the one-shot draft.' (Walshe, 1975)

The old English *required* children to write and it maintained vigilance over the obvious 'mechanics' of writing, but it failed to impart an understanding of the nature of writing, its difficulty, and how that difficulty could be coped with. Most damagingly, it endlessly rehearsed children in the hurried one-shot draft, the unfinished form of writing generated by the exam system. Because neither children nor teachers could enjoy such writing, and because it necessarily bristled with weaknesses which teachers had to 'mark', the writing scene in the schools has always been characterised by frustration and avoidance. English teachers have seen 'the marking burden' as their intolerable albatross; other teachers have pretended resolutely that written expression was none of their business.

Academic writing has distorted the schools' view of writing

Nor have the universities, with their tradition of academic writing, helped. Declining any responsibility for the teaching of writing, they have expected their students to come to them from the schools fully fledged. The kind of writing then demanded of these students has been dignified with words like 'impersonal', 'unemotive' and 'objective' but in practice it has more often been jargonised, ponderous and dull. This tradition of writing, transmitted to the schools via university trained lecturers and teachers, has been crossed with exam-determined one-shot drafting to give us the graceless school hybrid.

The professional education of teachers hasn't fitted them to teach writing

Not surprisingly, writing isn't one of our society's values. The old order – 'old' English, exam system, lifeless academic prose – has produced a revulsion. Not only do most people avoid writing but most teachers avoid it too. Except for a rare few, teachers seldom write anything themselves and never join their students in writing. Even most English teachers – products mainly of Lit. Crit. courses – write little. They understandably feel more comfortable teaching literature than writing . . . At some point, then, we need to break the self-perpetuating circle which keeps on graduating writing-shy teachers who go out to the schools to communicate their lack of enthusiasm for writing to the next generation. Why not in the colleges? Let's start teaching writing in ways that make use of the new knowledge of the process of writing so that our pre-service students become willing and fluent writers.

Part 2 . . . Wanted: A Positive Attitude to Writing

The student/citizen who can't write is disadvantaged

But the best of writing courses still has to make its way in this prevailing ethos of revulsion against writing. At least things can't get worse than they've been. We probably hit rock-bottom in the 1960s when the McLuhanites oversold the promise of electronic media at the expense of writing, which they not only derided as slow but denounced as sinful – being merely linear and logical in McLuhan's spontaneous 'all-at-once' universe. Now we should all be promoting positive attitudes to writing. Which, given the will, isn't really hard to do. A powerful case can be made for the importance of being able to write with some facility not only throughout the whole educational period (which has become lifelong for many) but also to meet changing job demands, to carry out citizenship roles, and not least to benefit from what writing offers as the inexpensive and best human instrument for pursuing decision-making, self-discovery and many forms of self-expression. (For an extended statement on the importance of writing: Walshe, 1972.)

Writing needs equal status with reading

Society is disposed to reverence reading while neglecting writing. The media chiefly have reading in mind when they castigate the schools for fostering 'illiteracy', but a similar imbalance can be found at many points in the educational structure. For instance, there are hundreds of full-time reading specialists in Australia, but has anyone heard of a full-time writing specialist? The Australian Schools Commission's 'Innovation Program 1977' lists 37 funded reading projects as against only 4 writing projects, all of them small. Further afield, there's an I.R.A. (International Reading Association) but no I.W.A. Carroll and Chall's authoritative **Towards a Literate Society** (McGraw Hill, 1975) turns out to be solely concerned with reading. Even the well-intentioned Bullock Report, **A Language for Life**, is overwhelmingly about reading, while its treatment of writing is meagre.

Though that Report can be quoted for proper sentiment (e.g. 'A child learns language primarily by using the four modes of talking, listening, writing and reading in close relationship with one another', p.162, and '. . . a child can learn by talking and writing as certainly as he can by listening and reading', p.50), it fails to clarify what is fundamental to the case for paying more attention to writing: that each language mode, though related of course to the others, must to a considerable extent be developed independently (cf. Fillion, Smith, Swain, 1976). Writing needs a great deal of independent practice, as well as whatever interaction arises naturally with talking and reading. For a long time there hasn't been enough writing done in many schools and colleges – not just note-making, but continuous prose writing of various kinds . . . As the status of writing improves, so should the opportunities for its practice.

Reading/writing is still the central responsibility of the schools

Despite manifold accretions to curriculum in the past hundred years, the central responsibility originally assigned to primary schooling – the teaching of reading and writing (together with arithmetic) – remains much the same today *but on a much higher level.* If we had to reformulate that responsibility, no doubt we would prefer to speak of *language*, for we would wish to include plenty of *talking-listening* in a variety of situations, but we would still see *reading/writing* as absolutely central, though not just 'the mechanics' as of old, but *the achievement of a high regard for the many uses of reading and writing, and if possible a love for them.* Reading/writing (together with some basic maths) is the means through which most of life's later learning takes place. Equipped with these skills a student/citizen is well equipped for whatever may arise in his life. The schools can't predict what this student/citizen will need in the way of knowledge in ten years or twenty, so they can't educate him today with much specific knowledge that can be guaranteed to help then; but they can go far towards equipping the student for – anything! That is, by equipping

him as an effective and fluent reader and writer.

We can start with the principle, 'Learn to write by writing'

Facing up positively to the difficulty of writing ('The fundamental problem with children writing is not so much that children find it difficult, but that it is difficult for everyone': Burgess et al., 1973) calls for affirming the first principle of language acquisition: *we learn language by using it*, particularly in the context of real experience. So we learn to write by writing; and all issues of exercises, drills, skills and grammar are secondary to that strategy. The school with a positive attitude to writing will provide a good environment for it and plenty of interesting and often easy opportunities for its practice, so that the children by writing are *learning* to write even apart from what their teachers are *teaching* them. As to what the teachers might be teaching them, let us try to glimpse the new abundance . . .

Part 3 . . . Four Models to Help the Teacher of Writing

A Brief Reading List. The list at the end of this paper mentions a very few sources which record some of the great advances that have taken place in writing pedagogy in recent years. The most concentrated way in which I can convey the essence of these advances is through four simple models.

1st Model: The Language-Experience Approach to Beginning Writing/Reading

In the infants schools of English-speaking countries, the 'language-experience' approach to beginning writing and reading has gained clear eminence. It deserves study by all teachers at later educational levels because of what is surely an extraordinarily sound methodology.

It begins with the strategy learn-to-write-by-writing (rather than through exercises) even though this first writing is a collaborative effort of teacher and child: the child's oral language about an experience is scribed by the kindergarten teacher to produce 'writing' which the child then traces and/or copies; simultaneously this writing becomes the child's first (school) reading . . . At this beginning level of literacy, then, we have an astonishing and perfect unity of experience/language/talking/listening/writing/reading/comprehension/learning. This is the profoundly important base for all later growth in literacy. Here is the model:

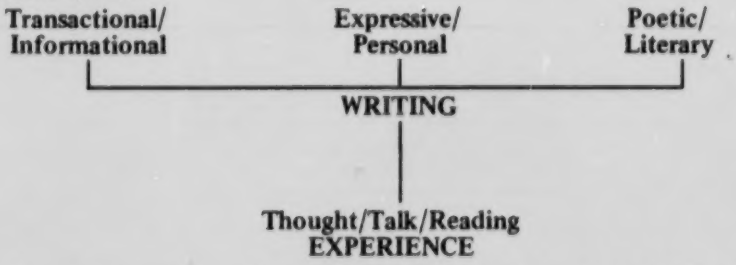
child experiences → **child speaks** → **teacher listens** → **teacher scribes** → **child reads** → **child (i.e. traces writes or copies)**

Why is this significant for the later teaching of reading/writing? Because its fundamental rightness of approach can serve as our ever-after prototype. Writing and reading have begun happily by being easy, meaningful, satisfying. In a word, the child begins by loving writing and reading. If, at any later stage, this love turns to indifference or

abhorrence, the school needs to ask where it is failing the child . . .Is the writing/reading no longer meaningful? no longer based on experience? no long using language familiar to the child? no longer relatively easy for the child to carry through successfully? Has it perhaps become top-heavy with exercises, skill-drills, imposed and alien writing/reading? On the other hand, if a language-experience approach continues to be followed throughout later schooling – in the sense of keeping experience, talk, reading and writing as close together as possible – then the child will retain his or her regard for the uses of reading and writing no matter how diversified they become.

2nd Model: From Speech through Expressive Writing to Formal Writing

From when the child no longer needs a scribe, the teacher can be guided by another model (after that of the London Schools Council Writing Project):



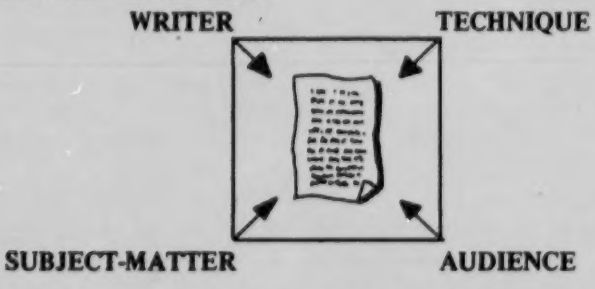
Out of experience (including reading), and perhaps after talk, comes writing. In infants and lower primary schools the child's writing needs to be very deeply centred in personal experiences and interests. The forms it takes can be relatively spontaneous, unpremeditated. ('Sheer self-expression requires no artistic form': Suzanne Langer.) This is *'expressive'* writing. It needs to have a place at later stages of education and of life but increasingly alongside more consciously structured forms: the child moves from elemental 'expressive' forms such as phrases, sentences, notes and jottings, perhaps through diary and other autobiographical scribbling and personal letters, towards forms that are thoughtfully styled – broadly towards *'transactional'* writing (that of business and public affairs, of information and exposition, etc) or towards *'poetic'* writing (that of poetry, but also of any form of the tale well-told, whether in continuous prose or dialogue).

The model shows up the fact that the schools haven't given children sufficient opportunity to work outward from their 'expressive' centre and thence write all along the continuum. In other words, it shows that we haven't given them frequent practice in a wide range of form and content. Secondary schools, much more than primary, have prescribed writing that is heavily weighted to the transactional end – content-based and impersonal Tertiary writing has been nothing but that. What needs promoting as a key concept of every primary and

secondary school's language policy – of 'writing across the curriculum' – is the need to provide opportunities for children to write regularly all along the transactional/expressive/poetic range (including some 'free writing', which will be discussed later).

3rd Model: The Writing Situation

'What we do before children write is probably more important than what we do after they write' (Squire, 1975). Every writing task calls for pre-writing consideration of a whole complex of elements, not only of subject-matter and method but also of human relationships. In the words of the Bullock Report: 'The novel features in the task and the language it demands can be explored in discussion . . .' These many features will be more easily handled in the classroom if grouped under the four heads of this model:



First, the *learner-writer* . . . with all his doubts and inadequacies, facing up to the difficult job of finding out, through the process of writing, what he should say to influence the reader or audience. Second, the *audience* . . . whose interests and characteristics must be studied if there is to be any effective persuasion. Third, the *subject-matter* . . . which, as a shapeless problem or mass of data, needs to be surveyed, its detail and quantity worried over, its possibilities guessed at. Fourth, the *technique* . . . which is all the possible means or know-how that might help the writer to select, order and present just enough of the subject-matter to persuade that audience.

As well as its basic use in guiding pre-writing discussion of the 'novel features' of every writing task, the model has three other uses:

(i) *It shows the dimension and complexity of the writing situation.* It shows graphically that every piece of finished writing is the complex product of an interaction of these four elements – and so we should never again treat writing reductively as a mere exercise in the mechanics of punctuation, grammar and spelling. Indeed the 'markable' mechanics are seen to be only a part of one of the four elements, a part of the large issue of technique which includes even more important issues such as point-of-view, voice, liveliness, development, and unity, all of which depend for their elaboration on subtly relating one's past understanding of technique to the other three elements in every new writing situation.

(ii) *It helps students to cultivate the art of self-editing.* The model provides an easily-kept-in-mind basic checklist of things to watch before, during or after writing. It therefore becomes a guide to editing or self-editing. Upon this basis the teacher may issue a detailed checklist of points considered relevant to the given stage of his class's development or relevant to a particular form of writing which is currently being explored. Some writing teachers swear by such checklists (e.g. Thomson, 1974). In my own practice I usually keep to an elemental checklist of four general points: (a) Is the writing *clear*, (b) Is it *interesting*, (c) Is its language *fresh*, (d) Is the whole piece *concise*?

(iii) *It guides response by the teacher.* When 'evaluating' the finished writing, the teacher realises that as well as watching the 'mechanics' he has the more important role of *responding* – that is, taking an interest in what the child is saying, trying to find and praise what is good in it, suggesting ideas that could be worth trying next time.

4th Model: The Process of Writing

'Basic to any teacher's effort to help students improve as writers is that teacher's understanding of the writing process' (Clapp, 1975). Very much more extensive than the 'one-shot draft', this process can be represented in model form thus:

Experience ⟩ Pre-writing ⟩ Draft-writing ⟩ Rewriting ⟩ Publication ⟩ Response

Of our many *experiences* (encounters, events, problems, reading, television, fantasies, etc.), just a few become subjects for writing. This 'writing', which can be seen as an extended and special process of thinking, crystallises by stages: it moves through *pre-writing* activities such as reflection, talk, reading or note-making, then through *draft-writing*, which may be one or more drafts, and at last to a full *rewriting* which is considered sufficiently polished to accomplish the writer's purpose. But the process isn't really complete till the writing achieves *publication*, that is, gets to the eyes of the reader(s), and this reader(s) lets the writer know, explicitly or by some sort of implication, his *response*. (For a more detailed account, with reference to the difficulties of asking children to rewrite: Walshe, 1976) Probably a 'workshop' arrangement is the best and simplest way to achieve this 'process' regularly in everyday classroom conditions – through the organisation of small groups within which writing is planned, written, read and discussed.

Part 4 . . . Writing in the Pre-Service Course

Qualification. The teaching of writing, like writing itself, is much more art than science, so it can't be reduced to a set of instructional techniques. That's why every teacher has to find an individual approach – find, that is to say, what works for him. But the implication of the four models is that they are concerned with quite basic considerations which need to be incorporated in the *method* of all lecturers of pre-service students.

An ideal course for a Writing Teacher. But what is a Writing Teacher? There is no such creature on the Australian educational scene. Writing is just one of many concerns of teachers at infants, primary, secondary or college levels. There are full-time reading specialists but not a single writing specialist. So it is at present a utopian exercise to indicate a rigorous course that could produce a full-scale Writing Teacher . . . a brief outline of such a course is therefore relegated to an Appendix.

Six possible ways to get ideas about the teaching of writing to pre-service students.

(i) A special writing unit, elective or compulsory, can form part of the teacher education course; preferably, of course, a compulsory one and in the first term of the course so that the improvement it achieves in written expression will benefit the rest of the course.

(ii) English lecturers can incorporate these ideas into their general courses.

(iii) Part of the thrust of 'language across the curriculum' in the college will be an attempt to have lecturers in subjects other than English similarly incorporate the new ideas in their courses.

(iv) Improvements in the teaching of writing in the schools, through in-service courses, etc., will exert an influence when pre-service students visit such schools.

(v) Ideally, every college should have a full-time specialist lecturer in writing, who might handle the special writing unit (i. above) and lead in-service work on writing-across-the-curriculum within the college (ii. and iii. above). Short of this ideal an English lecturer, presumably, could be assigned special responsibility for writing within the college as a major part of his general responsibilities.

(vi) State and/or regional curriculum centres should similarly have a full-time or part-time specialist in writing who, while communicating mainly with the schools, would keep in touch with the teacher education colleges.

'Free writing' in the special unit on writing. As stated in the 'qualification' at the head of Part 4, it would be wrong to suggest the details of a writing unit in the course of pre-service students – only the lecturer in charge should do that. But insofar as this unit needs to be very concentrated the basic approaches suggested by the four models may not be enough, because they are intended chiefly for the less-pressured needs of the schools. I therefore suggest that use be made in the unit of the marvellous expedient of 'free writing', in one or other of its many possible forms.

The small attention so far given in Australia to 'free writing' has focused on the keeping of a 'journal'. This is the idea so successfully promoted by Daniel Fader in **Hooked on Books** (Pergamon 1966). John Payne at Bomaderry High School has written up his five-years

experience with journals, in **English in Secondary Schools Today and Tomorrow**, ed. Watson & Eagleson (ETA of NSW, 1977). The Communication course for tertiary students at the NSW Institute of Technology makes use of a kind of journal – termed a 'logbook'. Journals of the US NCTE have printed a number of intriguing accounts of courses which make use of free writing. Two splendid examples: 'Free Writing in Composition Classes' by Michael G. Southwell, in **College English**, March 1977, and 'How to Completely Individualise a Writing Program' by William A. Clark, in **English Journal**, April 1975.

Both articles show how to move on from free writing to more structured forms. The essence of free writing/journals/logbooks is the ability to break through inhibitions about writing by encouraging students to write, write, write in an unmarked, non-threatening situation. This free writing proceeds, of course, while students are carrying out structured writing in other courses. Eventually there is a convergence of free with disciplined writing – with gains in confidence, fluency, control . . . All very exciting!

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PERSONAL NARRATIVES: DEVELOPING KNOWLEDGE*

Peter Moss

This paper describes some work that we have been doing at the University of Adelaide on some functions of narrative language. There is no large-scale refined research project in progress, consequently no theory of language is suggested. I merely report aspects of separate studies which are interesting in themselves and which give an accurate picture of the scopes of the investigations which we carry out in the advanced work within English studies and within English Curriculum work in the department of Education.

The starting point for our work is the view that conventional language and English curriculum work attempt either too little or too much. On the one hand Colleges and Universities offer formal courses in Curriculum Studies and, on the other, Advanced Linguistic entities which explore theoretical issues. The former study, in general, is circumscribed by questionable assumptions e.g. the desirability for curricula planning based upon an aims-objectives-evaluation sequence. The latter studies sometimes get so embroiled in fine distinctions that the core of language work is submerged e.g. the systematic reductions often found in Language and Communications work, sometimes obliterate our central concern, that of individuals using words to make themselves known. We try to take a middle ground, making close examination of real forms of language-in-use and at the same time, placing these analyses against, or within, wider related disciplines.

Criteria for the term, "real forms" of language are satisfied if the language samples studied are either the product of,

(a) narratives of engagement, such as autobiography or descriptions of single items of personal history.

or

(b) Literary narrations, both of the obvious genre type and also re-tellings of literary narrations. [1]

The way in which I view the work, and this is an *ex post facto* judgment, is that narratives, of whatever kind, represent tensions between

1. Criterion (a) owes much to categories developed by Robert Champigny in his monograph, *'The Ontology of the Narrative'*, Mouton, The Hague, 1972.

* For reasons of space the original paper has been considerably shortened. Only one set of transcripts are reported on.

Eds.

experience as lived or as felt and the eventual realisation of that experience as knowledge. Clearly, this is an unremarkable assertion if the argument is confined to traditional literary-narrative forms. But it is more worthy of remark (because rarely claimed) when it is applied to, say, personal narratives.[2] There is a danger in this which must be acknowledged at the outset. The fact that this struggle-to-knowledge can be demonstrated in single narratives may be nothing more than lucky accident or, at worst, the sleight of hand produced by a sensitive reading upon intrinsically interesting material. But there is, I think, a test of significance which can be applied and that is the degree to which the narratives conform in part to general tendencies or states of affairs in human life. Fortunately, there is a criterion which we can all apply to determine the extent to which the personal narrative of ordinary speech creates human recognition. That is, whether the narrative has sufficient seriousness to produce a transfer of imaginative energy from the writer/speaker to the reader/listener. It reveals itself in what has been called, in other contexts, the "shock of recognition". This idea of personal narratives as stages to knowledge needs explanation. I am not thinking of knowledge as a recognisable, verifiable content nor is the urge to narrative an impulse related to a need to establish and then to reach personal goals. Rather it is a subjective process, only fully recognised by the narrator, which allows him to place himself more firmly in his own social and cultural evolution.

The knowledge is, therefore, self-knowledge but it is not a fully-formed monolithic insight about the self. The narratives seem to represent small stepping-stones which allow both firmer-footing and forward movement towards a better realisation of the tension between experience and a more knowledge-able picture of one's own history. Personal narratives allow the individual a certain kind of freedom which I believe crucial for our sanity but which, in any case, is critical in our society wnere communications experts are feverishly attempting to obliterate the human message and silence the human voice. What they allow is a certain plasticity, the opportunity to identify again events; relive rôles; imaginatively enact significant moments; perhaps, even, to achieve the ability to label and name processes. Afterwards, the labels can be changed, shuffled; the enactments can be choreographed anew, but always with reference back to the realities of past experience. This freedom is possibly the closest we can get to magic, an infinite creation of scenes through words, all 'fixed' by the common element of 'I' or self'.

A further reason for valuing personal narratives is that they provide an important complement (or is it a balance?) to a current

2. One example will be enough to indicate the quality and the nature of the opposition to my view that unformed personal narratives are worth serious study.

> "The ego . . . has no interest in communication but only in expression. What it says is always a monologue . . . has nothing distinctive to express. It can express only the generic-food, gossip, resentments. Its natural affinity is for the ready-made phrase, the cliche, because it tends to address itself to the reflexes of the hearer, not to his intelligence or emotions."

p.42. Northrop Frye, 'The Well-Tempered Critic'. U. of Indiana Press, 1963.

perspective of language-observation which stresses group identities and interactions.[3] It is a perspective much bedevilled by notions of class and subcultures and which sometimes leave the impression (for nowhere can a theory or an empirical map be produced) that people have no lives lived privately. Worse, there seems to be an assumption that people do not require privacy. My own view, and one supported to some extent by our work on narrative, is that without a continual evaluation of the language of the individual *as demonstrated by the individual in isolation* then our teaching will hardly get off the ground. The reason for this is that the purely rhetorical aspect of conversations or, more crudely, the gestural impact, is so great that the 'purity' of individual language is sifted out. In other words, the individual is excused the effort to resolve the fundamental tension (between experience and knowledge) and that allows him to escape the (necessary) continuing engagement with events which at least offer him the chance to make some sense of his world. I believe that we travel more solid ground if we seek for wider relationships rather than that of the closed group, wider in the sense that we can perceive connections with universal theory. The particular interest of narrative study is that, occasionally, a sense of 'fit' is realised between the stirrings of knowledge and developed psychology and sociology. I recognise that there is a critical danger, here, that with small samples one may be overstressing apparent relationships. However, the material will speak for itself.

The study I report here is based upon a set of narrative samples from adolescents. They represent a very special case, firstly because they are tapes of teen-age sisters; secondly, because the narratives detail experiences which few adolescents would meet, or least in their entirety. They recount the reactions of the girls to the news that they were to leave Australia to return to live permanently in Eire (this, after spending most of their lives in Adelaide); next, the significant moments of the twelve months in Dublin and finally the unexpected return to Adelaide. The main theoretical starting-points for our examination was Elkind's paper on Adolescent Egocentrism.[4] Specifically, his view that during early adolescence, while the capacity to take account of other people's thoughts does emerge, the adolescent is still egocentric in orientation in the sense that, "while the adolescent can now recognize the thoughts of others, he fails to differentiate between the objects towards which the thoughts of others are directed and those which are the focus of his own concern." The two girls' free, spoken narratives flesh out this somewhat sterile description in several interesting ways.

3. Two recent publications of this type are, (i) **'Experiments in English Teaching'** by David Craig and Margot Heinemann. Edward Arnold, 1976. For a devastating and, in my view, fair assessment of this book see Raymond O'Malley's piece in the **Times Higher Education Supplement**, 22.4.77 (ii) The Essay by Rutherford, *'The Language of Pop'* in **'They don't Speak our Language'** ed. Sinclair Rogers. Arnold, 1976. This piece, in an otherwise interesting collection, takes sociolinguistic observation to extreme, self-defeating lengths.

4. D. Elkind, *'Egocentrism in Adolescence'*, in **Journal of Child Development**, 1960, p. 1025.

First Dianne, nearly thirteen when she left Australia for Dublin. The entire account of her year-long Irish experience is recounted at an absolutely personal level.

Dianne

When my mum first told me we were going to Ireland, at first I took it as a great excitement (you know), but after then when I realised I was going to leave all my friends have to start up new again it scared me a bit, and I started to have second thoughts about going. It upset me most when we were leaving the house that we'd been in for 7 years and realised that I wasn't going to probably see this place again and especially at the airport when seeing Brenda get all upset with her friends and realising how hard it was for her to leave, it upset me a bit and I was a bit upset leaving my relatives and friends too.

When we arrived in Ireland everything seemed real strange and the houses were all different and everything looked real different. At first I was a bit scared because seeing all the rough ones walk around it got me a bit scared, I thought everyone might be like this but after when I saw everyone else and saw how nice the people could be it didn't seem so bad.

The first week when we arrived there we were living in a sort of a dream, you know. We still thought we were in Australia and everything seems a bit strange and we had no-one to go out with so our cousin took me and Brenda out a lot to places and we started to enjoy ourselves. Then we met up with some friends but after a while they were just sort of like Brenda's friends so I started to try and make new friends and when I started school I met new girls and that and I couldn't go out with them at first because they were going to dances and it was a bit far away. After a while I was allowed to go and I really started to enjoy myself which I'd never really gone out a lot at night before so it seemed so great (you know). I started to meet boys then and get used to them and I wasn't so frightened. Before I left I was sort of very scared; I didn't talk to boys; I was very in myself, quiet, but then when I got over there all these friends soon brought us out, (you know), got it out of me, and I started becoming a bit more talkative and then after a while I started getting plenty of confidence and talking to everyone and then I started going to a dance every Friday night and after a while I got to know everyone in the dance and I started going out a lot with my friends and we were all in a group and there was about 20 of us and we used to all go out with each other quite a lot and then the summer holidays come, my whole day would be just going down to friends and talking and I really enjoyed myself and then Friday night we'd go to a dance and everything was really good because I was mixing more with people and I really liked it.

Then my Mum and Dad said that they weren't doing too well over here and my Dad was a bit depressed at work so he said he wanted to go to England to see if he could do any better over there so he went to England and we put the house up for sale and sold and everything was sort of getting a bit down because I didn't want to leave and then he rang up and said that there wasn't much in England and said we'd probably wait another year or two and save up to go back to Australia. I never thought we'd really leave (you know), not after coming all this way. I thought it was an awful lot of money to pay to come back.

Anyway, they sort of forgot about it and Dad started trying to make a good living in Ireland and things weren't still working out and Dad wasn't getting much pay over there so he came home one day and he says to Mum, "I think we'd better go, (you know) it's not working out over here and it's the best thing for the kids and that because they are not going to get jobs when they are old because there is

nothing here".

When I found out they told me not to tell anyone and it was, (you know), I still couldn't believe it, me going over to Australia again (you know) it sort of had gone out of my mind but then they started going down and enquiring about a visa and all of a sudden they said we could go as soon as we wanted so the house was up for sale. I started telling my friends and they couldn't believe it. They thought we were a bit mad but they understood and they were a bit, (you know), upset and I was upset leaving them, but I didn't think I'd be going so quick, until the house was sold and we only had 4 weeks to move out so then things started moving.

I started telling everyone and going around and seeing them a lot more to try to make up for it (you know) and they arranged a going away party and everything and I tried to go to as much places as I could with them and then the last night was really bad. When I was going I was really upset leaving them and I didn't want to go to Australia because I was thinking of it as it was before, sort of I'd be sitting home and doing nothing like I was before because I wasn't doing much in Australia before I left, I'd just sit around you know because I didn't have much friends over there and that's why I liked Ireland so much because I was getting out a lot more and I had more friends and I was a bit more outgoing and so when I knew we were going I didn't want to go because I thought, oh Australia, I'll be back where I was before. But now I'll probably, I've got more confidence, and I know that I'll probably get on a lot better than I did before. Hope for the best.

The extract is tentative and self-conscious, almost consumed by insecurity. Notable is the repeated use of "a bit" whenever she attempts to describe an emotion involving some kind of threat. Obviously, the scale of the feeling is not small and the phrase has become a verbal medallion to ward-off the recollection of clear-cut fear. This interpretation is strengthened by the opposite presentation at the (new) moments of elation and confidence. Then, she has "plenty of confidence"; she "really enjoys myself"; things were "really good" and "I really liked it." That these expressions are undifferentiated and inexact is not the point. The language performance in a sense is unimportant because the decisive movement in the complete narrative, from insecurity to recognised committment to modified anxiety is a significant pointer to a developing knowledge. The final section is indicative. "I was a bit more outgoing and so when I knew we were going I didn't want to go because I thought, oh Australia, I'll be back where I was before. But now I'll probably, I've got more confidence, and I know that I'll probably get on a lot better than I did before. Hope for the best." She is not out of her egocentrism but there is the beginning of an overlap into a further stage of maturity.

The repeated "you knows" are also very interesting for they suggest far more than semi-literate gropings (a judgement which many adults attach to this kind of sub-language imperative). They are more like appeals for validation of an experience or an emotion (their felt world) at a period in life when adolescents are not certain that they have a world to assert. Looked at another way, they are inchoate moments of other-connectiveness, an expectation that others have experienced similarly but an inability to recognise the reality of other's experience in ways which might enlarge the adolescent world of

"personal fable".[5]

Unlike Dianne, Brenda, who was 16 when she left Australia, is very much aware of the feeling of others. A good example of this comes out when they are about to leave Ireland for the return to Australia.

> "I was so happy and overjoyed at the thought of leaving. But then it's funny, in a way it was sort of sad. I was sad for my mother and father because they both left their family over there . . . so I was sad for them."

This is not only a matter of sympathy but a mature perception. There is nowhere that kind of intuition in Dianne's narrative. Brenda's narrative is much more involved; full of pace; details are piled on details. Yet, through it all, is there a sense of assimilation, of events having been sorted out and placed in perspective, not least in a perspective of her self. Whilst the narrative hardly rates as outstanding, evocative prose speech it is nevertheless alive with action and full of savoured experiences. That word, "experience", is significant. It occurs throughout the narrative – "it was a wonderful experience"; "it was a really lovely experience"; "it was an unusual experience". These are trite in isolation but in context, embedded within the many new happenings in her life, one is convinced that the important thing is the event and not the flabby qualifiers.

Brenda

I remember we were getting on the Jumbo Jet in Sydney (you know) all of a sudden then I think I started to get frightened, frightened on the plane, you know, when I was actually going on. I'd already been on a plane and I thought I'm going to be on this plane for 36 hours or something, you know and anything could go wrong. It was a wonderful experience on the plane and I think the excitement of seeing different places and all, I mean, we didn't get out, we didn't move from the airport when we stopped at Singapore and Bangkok but the fact that you're there makes you feel very good you know. But at this time I think I'd forgotten all of a sudden the loss of my friends. It is hard to say but I think you feel so overcome with other excitement and the plane journey went well except I was air sick, I usually am, but I'm that type of person – and we arrived at London first and my Dad's brother was there to meet us and I was so delighted to see my father meet his brother after 8 years, it was really, it was a lovely experience. I felt what my Dad must have been feeling, you know, and even when we caught the plane to Dublin that was the best part because we had all my Dad's relatives to meet us and it was a real lovely experience and I couldn't stop myself from crying that time, you know would you believe you're crying when you leave here and you're crying when you meet people, because I'd never met these people before, my Dad's father and my Dad's sisters and brothers, yet I felt, seeing how happy my dad was, I felt this as well, and I remember the accent, I noticed the accents, it was an unusual feeling you know and then seeing Ireland, the first thing I noticed was how closed in the place was and how the houses were all the same and very narrow roads and sort of

5. Elkind's term for the tendency in adolescence to *over*-differentiate personal feelings, to become one's own unique immortal heroine.

this concrete look you know very very old and I remember going into my Auntie's house which was very very small, very dog-boxish kitchen and I think we were all mixed up. Everybody was fussing over Dianne and I and David because they had never seen us before so really I think a lot of things happened and I know I was very very tired, but then again I wanted to go into the City and see Dublin itself, but I was sent to bed. We had a rented house all ready for us so we went straight into that and I remember we slept for, well we slept from 7 o'clock that evening until 12 o'clock the next day, you know right through, no waking up. I think it's you know the change of air, you simply sleep for ages and I remember that morning we went into town, all of us, and Mum and Dad showed us where they used to live and oh it was very very exciting; it was a really lovely experience for everybody. I noticed how full the city was and how many buses and how many people; it was a very busy city; it was a really lovely place and to see such culture, you know the culture of the people and to see people painting in the streets and selling their wares and singing in the streets which you see in Dublin a lot, you know you put money in. To see it was everything that my Dad had told me, you know I could now see and everything that was in my mind before. It was very very exciting and I remember the first day and night my cousin who is only about 2 years older than me, Deirdre, she took Dianne and I out to the pictures. A lot more people seemed to go to the pictures in Ireland and I noticed how full it was. Everything was so exciting and happening at the one time but then it was funny because after that I got very very sick, I don't know why, you know I couldn't eat anything and I went into this fit of depression. It was funny really I didn't want to go out anywhere. All of a sudden my mood changed, I don't know why, when I realised I didn't want to be going out with my Mum and Dad everywhere and you know things weren't the same, and I missed all my friends terrible and I remember I used to deliberately make myself depressed by looking at my pictures and thinking of what we used to do and I spent my time writing letters and telling them all about things here and telling how much I missed them. But you know all of a sudden I was so happy and I forgot about leaving my friends on the journey and getting to Ireland but when you actually settle into the place and you're on you own it all comes back again you know and I remember my Auntie from England came over to see us and she stayed with us for two weeks, she was supposed to stay for two weeks, but she died one of the nights she was staying with us and she died in the single bed opposite me. I remember the feeling of that. She was old, she was a lovely person and the fact that she died right next to me and I didn't know, she'd been dead for hours in the same room with me. I remember that spoilt everything, I think it turned the whole family against Ireland all of a sudden. You, know, death can have such a feeling, you know such an effect on people. I'd never experienced it before and the house we were living in all of a sudden had no appeal to my sister or I, we didn't like it at all any more, we wouldn't even sleep in the room, we'd rather sleep on the couch downstairs than sleep in the room where she died and the whole street, the whole area, you know, became repulsive to us. We never knew this woman much, only for the holiday and yet it was funny the experience of the way everybody else felt affected us an awful lot. Anyway it was through her death that I met other friends because the neighbours helped us and Dianne and I met our friends down the road and then I started to go out again. I remember we used to, they took us to dances and we started to mix with people and I went out with my first Irish boy and you know it was really, I really started enjoying myself, but then we went to school and I thought everything was such a novelty at first but after a while I realised it was so different to me; it was a different culture altogether. The girls were loud-mouthed and some of them were very rough and the bad language and

all I decided, I turned against it and sort of got very lonely again, you know, because I couldn't really adapt myself to that type of living. I remember I put on a stone on rich food and of course that didn't make me any better but when I look back I can't really think of Ireland badly because I did have some good fun. I went out with Irish boys, and we relaxed at pictures and I made some lovely friends but still you cannot adapt to a country, I mean after 7 years living here in Australia and growing up here, it is vey hard and Ireland has such a different culture altogether. It is very hard to adapt to something like that and I wouldn't say anything bad about the country it was just that I couldn't adapt to it and I don't think that my Mum and Dad could after living away from it for so long, you become Australian yourself.

There is interesting differentiation of the "you know" phrase in Brenda's narrative. As with her surer and more comprehensive grasp of events in general, this phrase becomes a relatively sophisticated device both for signalling intent and for structuring the narrative. In the above segment many occurrences of the term are merely verbal padding of spaces between points in the narrative, pauses to enable her to consolidate ideas. But it is also used to introduce evaluative extensions of the narrative and to warn the listener that more is to follow. A good example of this dual function is to be found in the opening sequence:

> "My Mum and Dad were thinking about going to Ireland for over two years and they kept changing their minds and re-changing them, they weren't quite sure. I mean, they were giving up a home, you know, it is a big task to undertake."

A slightly different function can be seen in the transcript extract, in her description of Dublin, where "you know" appears as a bridge between one idea and its modification:

> "The first thing I noticed was how closed in the place was and how the houses were all the same and very narrow roads and sort of this concrete look, you know, very very old."

Another non-standard form which nevertheless indicates a widening of communication is her frequent use of the pronoun "you" in the objective sense, a device which establishes tighter relationship between herself and the listener. When she met her father's relations for the first time Brenda remarks, "I couldn't stop myself from crying that time, you know, would you believe you're crying when you leave here and you're crying when you meet people!" When discussing the amount of sleep which she required she says, "it, you know, the change of air, you simply sleep for ages." The usage implies that the thoughts, or the feelings associated with it, in a particular instance could be attributed to anyone in similar circumstances.

Other aspects of the complete narrative worth commenting upon are rhetorical uses of repetition and the deployment of the movement away from-ego-centrism and an awareness of others, both as experiencing beings and as partners in a language bond.

Our particular interest in these adolescent narratives, then, is that they offer indications of specific, developmental struggles and close study of this personal language gives to us, as teachers, a broader and more sympathetic perspective from which to evaluate the language production of our students.[6]

6. We are also trying to develop ways of examining different kinds of narrative which takes into account William Labov's work. [See *'Narrative Analysis: Oral Versions of Personal Experience'* by W. Labov and J. Waletzky in American Ethnological Society Proceedings 1969. Washington.] He places a semantic emphasis on his material. We look at the texts from what we term a relational standpoint i.e. examining the relationship not between narrator and narrative but between narrator and the experience *in* the narrative. This, of course, produces the kind of knowledge indicated above.

DRAMA IN TEACHER EDUCATION – SUBJECT OR METHOD?

John Trinder

Is drama a subject area in its own right or a fundamental way of learning across the curriculum? Should teacher education courses in drama be concerned with developmental drama or should they give attention to the arts of theatre? Is there any place in the schools for subject specialists teaching drama or should drama teachers work only as consultants to other disciplines advising them how drama techniques can assist learning? Should drama be a part of English? These are some of the questions teachers of drama are asking themselves.

Immediately before the Armidale Conference on English in Teacher Education I will be attending the second national conference of the National Association for Drama in Education. I am aware, when talking to my colleagues in drama in education, that our views are very much influenced by the way in which the subject has developed in each State. In Queensland it would appear that the most influential lecturers are members of education faculties concerned with professional studies and methodology. In N.S.W. it would seem that in the colleges, at least, drama is still the concern of the English departments. In the other States drama departments have developed as fully autonomous departments whose concern is with drama as a subject in its own right. In some cases the drama faculties have little concern with the teaching of drama in schools, that being left to an entirely different group who are members of education or methodology departments.

We can have the strange situation in which lecturers in speech and drama who were originally employed in an ancillary or service capacity to departments concerned with the professional preparation of teachers, now teach drama as a subject and resist any suggestion that they should be directly interested in drama in schools. One of the areas of discussion at the NAADIE Conference will be, inevitably, between two groups, one of whom see drama simply as a way of learning, is concerned mainly with creative or developmental drama and resists any concern with play production, study of texts or study of theatre arts, whilst the other group is convinced that drama is a subject in its own right with its body of knowledge, whose practitioners are concerned with the teaching of certain professional skills and the transmission of an important aspect of our Western cultural tradition. You may see certain parallels in your own subject area.

After twenty years of teaching in three colleges in South Australia,

I find it necessary to take stock in order to decide where I stand in relation to the current controversies. In my own professional career, if I am honest, I must admit that I have been concerned with the development of drama as a subject in its own right, as a constituent member of a school of general studies, owing no allegiance to any other subject area but with continuing participatory links with those concerned with methodology in schools. This has been made easy for us by the quite (in my view) absurd situation in which education departments have been staffed with experts in Education with little interest or expertise in Curriculum, the term we use for describing what our customers actually do when they face a class! We continue to teach the strands of oral language and drama in Curriculum Studies both because of our continuing interest and the lack of personnel in the Education department with either qualification or interest in the area. I firmly believe that in general subject areas we should combine both the responsibility for teaching our subjects at the students' own level and the application of our subject as an activity in schools whether as secondary specialist teachers or primary class teachers.

In looking back over the last twenty years of drama in education in South Australia, I am aware that our development has been influenced by the fact that the earliest appointments were made independent of any other department. When I joined Musgrave Horner at Adelaide Teachers College our mandate was the provision of courses in Speech Education which were compulsory units for all teachers in training, whether as graduates of the University or of the two colleges, Adelaide and Wattle Park. There were only three of us teaching in the area, Horner and I at Adelaide and Ruth Barratt at Wattle Park Teachers College. Our position on the staff was that of licenced eccentrics, out of the main stream of the staff, most of whom were originally trained at Adelaide Teachers College, had graduated from the University of Adelaide and had taught in departmental schools. In spite of the common syllabus, the way we taught the speech education course depended upon our own interest. Musgrave Horner, whose book, **Speech Training**, was the prescribed text for the course, stressed the oral interpretation of literature based upon an initial study of phonetics intended to demonstrate the difference between spoken and written languages. I developed from this into practical sessions in developmental drama and expressive movement. Our basic objective was the development of confident expressive speech. We were also concerned with producing plays for the student dramatic society. Inevitably, the frustrations of teaching an elementary compulsory course to a variety of students, many of whom saw little value or purpose in the activity, made us work towards the possibility of teaching more advanced courses to students with a particular interest in the subject. Our first breakthrough came when many of the graduate students asked for the opportunity to substitute other courses for the compulsory unit in physical education. This move, supported by the physical education staff who shared our feelings about compulsory courses, led to the

institution of an elective course in Educational Drama in which strangely enough some of the most enthusiastic participants were students majoring in Physical Education.

Up to this time, students on teaching scholarships expected to study their major subjects at the University, with some extra tutoring at the teachers college and with the professional components of their courses being largely provided by teachers college staff. When fully internal courses were provided, the choice of general subject areas was restricted to English, Geography and History. As in all other subject areas we, whose particular interest was in drama, worked towards the opportunity to offer full major courses in drama and by 1965 all three colleges, Adelaide, Western and Wattle Park, had small but energetic drama departments whose staff saw as their principal concern the offering of the general studies courses Drama A, Drama B and Drama C. At Adelaide Teachers College Musgrave Horner had even managed to gain the accreditation of a three-year Secondary Teachers Diploma (Speech and Drama).

The resistance to being restricted to the offering of service courses and the desire to work with students who had elected to study the subject to a more advanced level was not confined to drama. When I joined the staff of Bedford Park Teachers College on the new Flinders University Campus the compulsory course in Speech Education had become one of the four strands of Expressional Activities which were Creative Drama, Music, Art and Physical Education. Students elected to study in two areas at a preliminary level and take one to a more advanced level. In the classes were both Dip. Ed. students who were graduates of Flinders University and students undertaking internal teachers college courses. The same pattern of development occurred as I have described earlier. By the time Bedford Park Teachers College had become Sturt College of Advanced Education, independent both of Flinders University and the State Education department, we were offering a full major course in Drama as part of the general studies component of the teachers Diploma and Bachelor of Education degree, as were the departments of Music, Art and Physical Education.

This pattern of development has, I think, tended to be concerned more with the development of drama as a subject in tertiary institutions than with the development of drama in schools. General studies courses are in fact concerned with the students' own personal development in a continuing liberal education. We were involved in *teacher education* not *teacher training*.

At the NAADIE Conference Paul Stevenson of the Melbourne State College is to speak in support of the Statement: "The tendency to parade Drama as an academic subject is inherently limiting because drama is best seen as a method of working rather than as a discipline in its own right." I am to speak on the opposing statement "In order to achieve adequate recognition as an area of educational endeavour, Drama should become an established discipline within the secondary school curriculum". You can see from the wording of the first statement

that it is not expected that the debate will lack a certain emotional fervour! I think I could speak with feeling on either statement but I am aware that the "radical pioneer" teacher of Speech Education in 1959 whose sights were set on the establishment of drama as a major subject area has now become a speaker from the Establishment! I have considerable sympathy with the first statement as I have seen in many institutions both here and in the U.K. and U.S.A. drama departments in which the teachers were theatre directors manqué. Our very success with students can be corrupting! If, at the completion of our courses our graduates seek work in the theatre rather than as teachers of drama, we should question our own motives.

My main defence of drama as a subject in secondary schools will be based upon the belief that children's needs are different at the succeeding developmental stages through which they pass. At the pre-school and lower primary level the children's dramatic play is concerned principally with exploring the expanding world in which they find themselves. They play out the relationships with others as when they "try on" being the teacher, bus driver or parent in order to vicariously experience and thus understand. The young child also takes part in the stories he hears both as participant and listener. Peter Slade, many years ago, showed how the young child is actor and audience in one. So they progress through the primary school stage and this early dramatic play develops into playmaking and experimentation with role and situation. Dorothy Heathcote, at present the strongest influence in educational drama in Australia, describes the activities of educational drama as being concerned with pre-living and re-living, of investigating the business of living in the classroom which can be like a laboratory where we can explore in safety. She defines dramatic activity as being "concerned with the ability of human beings to 'become someone else', to 'see how it feels'".

The range of activities which can be included under the heading of drama in the primary school can permeate throughout the school day for it is as important as a way of learning as it is as a child art in its own right. For example, I have a very strong conviction that poetry must be for children an experience rather than an intellectual puzzle to be solved if meaning is to be revealed. Rhythmic patterns can be explored in movement, as in the exploration of simple rhythm rhymes with first and second grades. In older grades poetry, music, mime and dance can join together in an exploration of mood, atmosphere and meaning. By playing different roles children can experiment with different registers of language. Drama is the means by which children can explore both their own natures and the world in which they live. There is little place for scripted drama as we are concerned more with developing the children's own language. A glimpse of what is possible can be seen in one of the first films made about Mrs. Heathcote's work, **Three Looms Waiting**. The headmaster of a primary school in the North East of England has been working with a large group of children on a biblical theme, the story of the encounter between Elijah and Jezebel.

After a vigorous, confident, improvised performance the children are questioned about their concept of drama. It is evident that their intense involvement arises out of the fact that under the leadership and guidance of a gifted teacher they made their own play. Its vigour and spontaneity arises out of the fact that they are using their own language, they speak *meanings* rather than *words*. The process is described in detail in Rosens' **The Language of Primary Children.**

As children enter the first two years of secondary education in South Australia they are likely to find their first experience of drama as a subject. Twenty years ago first year drama was the class reading of one-act play texts as part of the English course. Nowadays, at least where the school has drama specialist teachers, the dramatic activities are a development of the creative drama of the primary school. The difference in the activities arises from the developmental stage through which the children are passing. John Seely describes ". . . the behaviour of the adolescents (as) characterized by qualities that are very different from those to be seen in the imitative activities of young children . . . The speakers are *very aware of their audience* and imitation is no longer an end in itself. Instead, their imitative behaviour is used to help them *communicate* with others in a social interaction. They imitate other people's behaviour in order to back up some analytical point they wish to make: this type of person behaves in this way, they say, and here is an example to prove it."

The English teacher and the drama teacher have, I believe, a principal common concern, *language*. The English teacher may very well adopt the same methods as the drama teacher, making use of the techniques of improvisation. At the first and second year stage the activities are for all children and drama should not be an elective subject. I believe, however, that the drama specialist in an adequate drama space, has more chance of achieving success. The space does not need elaborate equipment but should provide uncluttered floor space, the possibility of blackout which together with some simple lighting can aid concentration, and a degree of accoustic insulation to allow for more work noise than is often possible in a classroom. A convincing rational for the activities is given by John Seely in the section *Language, situation and the individual* of his book **In Context.** In drama the playing out of situations provides opportunities for the practice of the various social and linguistic roles the child is called upon to play, involving the register of language required, the paralanguage involved and the presentation of self.

What of the continuing years in the secondary schools? It would appear that in the third and subsequent years there is both pressure and opportunity to offer children the opportunity for electing to study drama as a subject with the time allocation and weighting of any other discipline. The challenge is to construct courses which combine a core study with a variety of practical options. The Bullock Report warns against the danger that the "quest for 'academic respectability'" might lead to a "heavy emphasis on 'the history of theatre' with an

undue weight on the learning of facts completely detached from any practical work". The most successful courses I observed in England which prepared students for a Mode 111 C.S.E. examination demonstrated that it was possible to avoid this trap. David Morton, an Inspector of Schools in Leeds, writes ". . . the aims of secondary education, within the compulsory age limit at least, should be expressed in terms of human capacities to be developed rather than subjects or topics to be studied," but goes on to describe as an ideal activity an example which ". . . could only be attempted after several years of serious education through drama." This was a project undertaken by a group of forty 4/5th year girls and boys who opted for drama for one afternoon per week. Their previous unit of work had been experimentation with the linking of human sounds with movement and speech. The group developed an anthology program of music, movement, dance, improvisation and script interpretation of fragments from plays, poems and documentary material investigating the question raised by one of the group, "What is love anyway?" This led to a performance by the group of the programme in a non-competitive drama festival. Morton points out that the performance was only one of the possible outcomes for the unit. His general objectives were concerned with four areas within which the adolescent attempts to establish his identity: Concern with himself as a person, the acceptance of himself in his relationship to a group, the recognition of the surprising range of individual differences among human beings and the acceptance of others in relation to oneself. A successful series of programmes of this type have been completed by a teacher in a Catholic city school in Adelaide. The first, with a third year class of girls predominantly from migrant families, aimed at helping them develop a satisfactory self concept, improve their confidence in communication situations and above all, provide them with a successful group experience. The end product was a programme called **Everywoman** in which the girls researched the changing role of woman in society. It included improvisations concerning the family, ranging from **Father knows best** set in the 1880's to a modern girl's persistance in gaining the same educational opportunities as her brother. They found poems, documentary material, a section from a musical called **The Matchgirls**, and finished with a rousing chorus of Helen Reddy's **I am Woman**. The value of the performance element was shown in the growth of confidence particularly evident in the girls who were low achievers and the participation by some of the more troublesome members of the class.

In order to get the space in which to work, time for the projects to develop and the credibility necessary for support by the school, I believe Drama must be recognized as a subject area in the secondary school. The specialist teacher can not only teach drama to the lower school but provide courses which enable older students to develop skills of research, organization, performance and reflection. Peter Slade recommends that drama education for adolescents should start with imaginative training for all, be followed by social training for most and

develop into theatre for some. The scope for the third stage is, I believe, wider than the examination of theatre arts although performance must, I think, be an integral strand. Dorothy Heathcote writes that although drama is concerned initially with the children using their own words ". . . at a later date still these children need challenging further, possibly to become interpreters of someone else's writing . . . This challenge must come when they are ready to meet it." Later she points out that the eyes of the older children have "turned outwards to the place of the arts in the world of the adult."

There is no reason for it to be wrong for children to interpret plays if the approach to play production is concerned with 'rebreathing life into (worn out) words." If the rehearsal process is being trained by an adult director in order to show to an audience a finished product it is of little educational value. If the emphasis in rehearsal is "living through" an experience, in which the actor "seeks behind the written word to find the dynamic thought and emotion" in order to re-create the author's intention, participation in performance is a valuable learning experience. Whether the class is engaged in improvisation or working upon a scene from a play, the teacher should ask, as does Mrs. Heathcote, "How, through drama, do I set up the reflective process?" This can be done, I submit, most effectively if, in the secondary school, drama is seen "as a discipline in its own right." It is not as likely to happen if the dramatic activity is restricted to the school play, where the objective is reaching a finished performance as expeditiously as possible in the time restrictions imposed by its being an extra-curricular activity. It cannot develop effectively if the dramatic activity is restricted to being used as a tool for occasional use in other disciplines. It depends upon a progression from the first year playmaking and games approach through the acquisition of a variety of skills and growth of confidence with active experimentation in a wide range of imaginative activities involving sounds, physical movement, voice and speech, interpretation and improvisation.

Which brings me back finally to the drama courses in the Universities and Colleges which are part of the preservice training of teachers. In our general subjects courses we are concerned with *drama in education* for adults, not methodology. In them, to quote Mrs. Heathcote again, ". . . we must aim to give teachers as thorough a grounding as we may in the actual dynamics of drama." At Sturt C.A.E. our definition of drama is as wide as to include a range of theatrical and extra theatrical forms, film, television, mime and dance, dramatic literature, oral interpretation of literature and radio. In order to accommodate this spectrum of activity we call the department, Communication Arts. Although the courses are aimed at adults we try, by the way we teach, to inculcate an approach which brings about healthy attitudes towards the teaching of drama in schools. We encourage entry by all students, not simply those with theatrical talent or special interest. In our film segments we start with film-making with the most basic Super 8 equipment in which students can work with children in schools at any

level. We resist the provision of a professional type television studio but every student in the second year course makes a television programme in an improvised studio using a three camera set-up with the kind of ½" Videotape machines they are likely to meet in schools. In the first year seminars they participate in group activities which research the origins of drama and the development of ritual into later forms. There are few lectures as the students undertake research projects in which they teach each other. The interpretation programmes develop the students' personal communication skills and at the same time introduce an active form of literary criticism. There is a thread of performance throughout the four years but this is geared to the development of the understanding of the process rather than the acquisition of professional skills.

Drama has much to offer in the preparation of teachers, both in the provision of specialists who will teach the subject in secondary schools and teachers of general subjects. The drama majors who teach in primary schools will gain not only from their knowledge of drama as a way of learning but from their own greater understanding of the human condition gained from their tertiary study of drama as a subject. For them, as for the children they teach, they gain from experience of drama as an art form. In the words of James Britton

> "... there is plenty of reason to believe that young children have strong feelings about the people and the creatures and the objects they meet: that a part of the process, indeed, of growing up into sane and sensible adults is to lose these particular passions or at least ... to reduce them ... but it is one of the functions of poetry and the arts in general to break through the organized decency of these well ordered sentiments and bring back a little of the fire of undomesticated emotion."

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TEACHING INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION SKILL

Erica Bates

The term "interpersonal communication" describes the combination of ways we have of transmitting our feelings, thoughts and ideas to other people. It is a process which is seldom appreciated as a complex series of learned responses which, as with all learning, requires effort, understanding, self-discipline and practice for the achievement of effective performance. As with all learned skills, natural aptitude and environmental factors will affect the level of skill which can be reached without conscious effort. But there is nothing 'natural' or inevitable about poor communication; skill deficits can be remedied to a large extent if they are recognised as just that and if appropriate measures are taken to overcome these deficits.

The course which I am going to talk to you about to-day is designed to introduce groups of people to learning ways of communicating more effectively. It is one of a number of methods which have been designed to meet their need and it reflects my philosophy about the most effective methods of communicating and therefore what I see as the most effective methods of teaching and learning.

The approach that I am going to use to communicate to you about the course is the well known "why, what, and how" approach i.e. why did I design the course, what is the course supposed to do and how does it set out to do it.

The Why

My reason for designing the course was a simple and pragmatic one. Many of my post-graduate students are doctors, and the more contact I had with them the more apparent it became that as a group they were not very effective communicators. Outside of a limited range of technical peer group interactions, they had little idea of how to explain simple or complex ideas or instructions, or of how to listen for subtle, unspoken messages. They had no idea of the importance and subtleties of nonverbal, emotional communications. More seriously, they frequently had only marginal appreciation of their lack of communication skill and of the complexity of the process involved. The critical nature of the lack of communication skills in a profession such as medicine needs no elaboration. But what does need to be said is that this lack of skill can be shown to be common in many other professions and also in family relationships, although good communication and an understanding of the dynamics involved are essential to a successful outcome of most interpersonal relationships.

I began developing the course using Adult Education groups, and over the past two years developed it with teachers and managers as well

as with my post-graduate doctors, nurses and hospital administrators. As a rough rule of thumb, my experience and theirs has been that the more complex the level of technical skill of a person, the more simplistic and ineffective is his understanding and level of skill in the communication process. This is not just my judgement of the situation; it is the almost unanimous opinion of people from all who have done the course. The opinion tends to be supported behaviourally by the overwhelming demand I have for both the original introductory course and for the advanced courses that I am still in the process of developing. Courses are invariably oversubscribed, there are long waiting lists for future courses and the drop out rate from both waiting lists and courses is so low that it is positively inconvenient. I think also that many technically trained professionals tend to despise communications training because "everyone knows how to do that" and so they do not even attempt to become more competent.

The What

So much for the why and on to the what. What is the course and what is it supposed to do? It is called an "Introductory Course in Interpersonal Communication"; it sets out to cover a well-defined and limited amount of ground, within a set period of time, for a limited number of people, using a particular and well defined teaching method. More specifically it is designed basically for from 12-18 people, to cover three, eight-hour days (not consecutively, but at weekly intervals to allow practice time) and it aims at showing any group of people that no matter how good they think they are at communicating, they still have a lot to learn about communication. It aims to improve people's ability to listen, to understand and convey emotional messages, to gain confidence, to think more quickly on their feet, and to improve their problem-solving capacity.

The basic methods of communication are considered and the major critical issues implicit in the communication process are introduced. Some of the major issues are:

(i) in any communication exchange it is the underlying emotional message which will be believed, regardless of the words used;

(ii) that certain types of responses are dysfunctional and will lead to specific and futile patterns of interaction if they are not recognised and deliberately controlled;

(iii) that these forms of dysfunctional communication have characteristics which can be recognised and that more functional modes of communication can be learned;

(iv) that feelings are an inevitable part of the human condition, they are acceptable; they must be recognised and responsibility must be taken for them; and communication will be improved if they are made more explicit;

(v) the feeling behind the 'thought' messages you send and receive must be recognised if distortion of meaning and intent is to be avoided;

(vi) that good communication techniques enable you to obtain more of what you really want from other people and that this is NOT 'manipulation'; that in all our relationships we try to gain what we want as well as what others want, and that good communication enables others to perceive their wants and needs, and your wants and needs, more clearly. Hence some kind of manipulation is a legitimate aim in all interactions;

(vii) that poor communication patterns are not an inevitable personal cross – they can be modified and improved to a degree proportional to the time, effort and risk invested in learning new and better ways. Communication ability, like musical ability, varies in different people; most people can improve with training – though some will never be able to do it, and some will be brilliant even without much training.

The How

And how is this transformation to be brought about in this magic course; what is the method by which lead can be transformed into gold?!! Like most effective methods the way is easy to say and hard to do. The easy-to-say teaching assumption is that understanding the theory or observing others interact is *not* enough to change communication behaviour. Each person must himself experience the situations and feeling which the theory analyses and describes; each must experience success in practising the skills discussed and must see and experience that varying degrees of failure are not irrevocable and that something can be done about them.

This is done by taking the class through a series of planned, controlled, structured experiences, using a series of exercises which are first practised and then explained and discussed. The reason for practice first and discussion second is that we tend to experience what we are programmed to expect and so any preliminary explanation tends to distort what we experience. So the order is feeling first and understanding feelings second, with the objective of learning and practising voluntary control and planning of our own expression of feelings and of 'hearing' and allowing for the feelings being expressed to us.

Each exercise has a specific aim and method and they are fitted together to form a structured experience for each day of the course and for the course as a whole. The critical factor in structuring the course is the conscious use of different levels of emotional tone by the teacher at all phases of interaction. Timing must be right. Teacher sensitivity to the responses of individuals in the group and of the group as a whole is critical to achieving controlled changes of pace, through a series of experiences and interactions which provide a degree of stimulation and risk which stops short of being too threatening.

Certain caveats are stated at the beginning and reiterated at various points during the course. I find it astonishing that so many teachers believe that they should be able to get on with every child, and they are enormously relieved when I tell them it is normal that we should dislike some people, even if there seems to be no reason, just because of something in the mutual chemistry that doesn't mix. This is relevant because they often believe that they should be able to communicate with and teach any child, and it seems obvious to me that this is an unrealistic expectation.

Another caveat is that improvement in communication skill will not necessarily improve a particular relationship – indeed, once you learn to communicate properly, the differences between you may become far more glaringly obvious. But at least you will know their boundaries, and can begin to decide what you will do about them.

Finally, I do not deal with conflict in the introductory course. In order to allow participants to experience conflict, I need to develop a conflict situation in the group, and there is not sufficient time in the preliminary course to solve the problems this would create. Instead, I concentrate on creating an extremely good group climate, which is one of the aspects each group comments on. By the end of the introductory course the group is ready to deal with conflict because they can see that differences are going to occur and that mechanisms have to be found for coping with inevitable conflicts. But because, by then, they are relaxed and have developed some confidence, they can learn to cope with this in the advanced course.

Adjustments in the order, duration and emotional tone which is developed can and should be made to fit the emotional tone and level of skill of different groups, or to fit in with a shorter or longer day or with larger or smaller groups. These adjustments cannot be random however, they must be appropriate in terms of where the exercise is placed in time and to the skill and emotional tone of the individual group. Exercises will only work individually or collectively if they are appropriately placed in terms of where the group has arrived emotionally and intellectually. Some exercises must be grouped together no matter what changes are made necessary by circumstances and some exercises must be included no matter what limitation of time may arise.

My aim is to maintain the right emotional rhythm and teacher control and group trust in the teacher's ability and judgement. To help teachers when they first start to conduct the course I have worked out a series of options for changing exercises around from within the basic structure; those which must be placed in particular places in time and those which must be grouped together are indicated appropriately,

At this point I cannot stress too strongly that this is not an encounter type course – it is in fact specifically counter-encounter. The reason why I have deliberately taken this non-encounter direction is that encounter is primarily concerned with exploring inside rather than looking outward. I do not believe this is a fruitful direction from

the point of view of improving communication. Encounter aims at breaking down defences; I am aiming at distinguishing useful (functional) from useless (dysfunctional) defences. My aim is to loosen control to the extent necessary to prevent waste of energy on maintaining useless defences, to show how one can learn to distinguish one from the other through controlled, disciplined breaking down and experimentation to see which defences can usefully be discarded and which retained. Some defences are necessary in all situations, but when they interfere with effective function some conscious decision should be taken about priorities, i.e. is the objective of the defence more important than the objective implied in discarding it. What I am trying to show are ways in which defences can be used most appropriately according to situation, people and time. My message is that the barriers we use we should put up and discard *by choice*. The message of encounter is that the breaking down of defences is an end in itself.

I will finish by saying a little about what sort of groups the course is best suited to, who might teach it and what materials and training would be needed by teachers.

The groups for whom the course would be particularly useful, as I see it, are vocational groups, school children, and managers but not general population groups such as adult education groups. I have some observations about the latter because my experience has been that they tend to come with expectations that they will find in the course a solution for some generalized life problems that they are trying to solve. This expectation is unrealistic and bound to cause disappointment. Alternatively they may be looking for social or sexual interaction. While these goals are of course quite legitimate, the course is not designed with these aims in view. It is fair to say that vocational, organisational or common interest group settings are preferable to what might be called general social settings. Other than that the group must be limited to 18-20 as absolute maximum and be mostly strangers to each other, though it does no harm if a small number in the course are friends or co-workers. The problem with groups who know each other too well is that they may hesitate to say or do certain things for fear of exposure to people whom they cannot later avoid.

Who could teach it? I am not too certain about this; certainly a fairly high level of life experience, emotional energy and tolerance for challenge is essential and I suspect some sort of theoretical background in the social sciences and/or semantics; *NOT* a psychoanalytic type approach I suspect. I would predict that what will in fact happen is that one of the factors which will change and modify the course when it is published is the type and background of the people who teach it. What I am setting out to do increasingly is to put as many teachers as possible through the course with the aim of having them experiment with it in schools in conjunction with me. I would like to adapt the course with them in such a way that it could be taught as part of the regular school curriculum.

Teaching tools required are video equipment and a teaching kit

composed of a series of cards. There are three general cards, each setting out a day of the course and one additional card for each exercise. Each individual exercise card shows the aim and method for each exercise and the emotional tone of each; each day card gives the number and name of the exercise, its order in the day and its emotional tone. Options and essential groupings are indicated. Someone is required for two to three hours to do the filming for video on the first and last days of the course; the teacher can play back the tapes alone. We are also coming around to the view that two people should conduct the course jointly by each taking part of the course. One advantage gained this way is that they can discuss the course and the group; this can become an important source of insights and modifications. Again location, resources available and size and type of group are variables which are to be taken into account. A blackboard or something of the kind is also some sort of essential, as are chairs which can be easily arranged in a circle – i.e. not desks lined one behind the other with teacher up front. Training? Again I'm by no means certain; exposure to the course as a student is the only essential requirement to date and then I suspect some sort of apprenticeship system, with appropriate reading to supplement theoretical gaps.

For the students, I recommend that they read Raphael Becvar: **Skills for Effective Communication**, Wiley, U.S.A., 1974, which describes a number of exercises they can practise after finishing the introductory course. As an introduction to the theory, I like S.I. Hayakawa: **Language in Thought and Action**, Harcourt, Brace & World Inc., N.Y., 1964, and John Casson: **Using Words**, 1968 (obtainable in Australia only through John Cruickshank, Management Consultants).

I think it is necessary to state at this point that the course is not an easy one to teach: it looks far simpler than it is. This is because continual challenges and questions are flung at the teacher by the group, particularly as participants gain confidence and competence. It is also emotionally taxing, because the teacher has to keep a close, empathic monitoring watch on the group to sense incipient problems and solve them before they disrupt the course.

Evaluation

I was given a two-year Educational Research and Development Council grant to evaluate the course in 1975. But when a Research Assistant and I started to evaluate, we rapidly discovered that the course needed an enormous amount of modification. It has also been hard to find a suitable researcher to help me. It was not until late last year that I finally found one who could cope with the difficulty of the task, and she and I have worked since then to try and develop an evaluation strategy. As we worked, we found that we had to develop a theoretical underpinning to every single exercise and by doing that we learned how the course should develop. Hence we feel we have only now reached the point where the course is able to be evaluated, because

it now has a coherent and logical structure, with emotional tone varying from exercise to exercise but increasing gradually from Day 1 to Day 3. After trying a number of abortive methods, we are now using the technique of videotaping the final session, asking the class in groups of 4 to describe specific ways in which they have used what they have learned in the course, describing what they did and what happened as a result. In this way we are trying to develop a kind of "critical incident" technique to see which learning is transferred to actual practice.

But the real evaluation will come, I hope, early next year. Two groups of teachers have now done the course and I am offering an advanced course next term. Some of the teachers have already tried out bits of the course in their classrooms, with children ranging from Year 3 to Year 8. My researcher and I want, now, to help a few teachers adapt the course for classroom use, and then, by using experimental and control groups in the schools, we should have numbers large enough to enable us to do some meaningful evaluation.

It will be clear to you from what I have said that the course has developed and changed over time as I have experimented with it. In many ways it has been a series of pragmatic, gut-feeling responses to a group mood; in the sense that if something doesn't seem to be working I have changed it. I have frequently come back to an original format, modified in some apparently insignificant way. From a theoretical point of view this recurring 'going back' to the original has been reassuring, but I suspect that the real test to the theoretical soundness of the course will be the success with which the method can be taught to others to a level of mastery which will allow them to become teachers of it themselves.

WHAT THE PROFESSION NEEDS

Ernie Tucker

My father had clear expectations about my education. As he was a worker, he wanted me to become a gentleman. The system obliged him but if I am going to represent teachers, I cannot speak as a gentleman should to a conference of teacher educators. So cop this.

Most English teachers have highly critical remarks to make about their teacher education. In the 1976 Central Metropolitan Region "Enquiry into Literacy and Numeracy" Survey, 615 English and Maths Secondary teachers and Primary teachers were asked about the adequacy of their pre-service and inservice training.

73% of Primary and 44% of Secondary school teachers answered that their training was "inadequate" or "not at all adequate" for "individualization of learning experience for pupils". 38% and 49% gave the same rating about training for the "diagnosis of learning difficulties" and 34% and 48% answered similarly concerning preparation for the "treatment of learning difficulties".

If you put aside questions about the nature of the survey questions and their proximity to the literacy and numeracy bandwaggon, you must agree that it would be easy for any survey of secondary English teachers to come up with similarly critical results. Clearly, at least half the English teachers would think that their teacher education was lousy.

A much wider questionnaire was sent to all N.S.W. Secondary schools by the N.S.W. Secondary Schools Board English Syllabus Committee, in October, 1975. 2032 teachers replied from 407 schools which represented 65% of the schools in the mail out. A brief report can be found in "English/History" Number 34, 1976 (a journal for Secondary teachers published by the N.S.W. Department of Education). Details of what teachers see themselves as actually doing from day to day in the classroom give some clues about what has been inadequate in their teacher education. The respondents were asked to indicate teaching methods that occupied more than 5% of class time with the question, "which of the following methods do you favour?". 65% favoured "individual silent work" and 31% favoured "lecture method". 54% favoured "small group work". The answers sit uneasily with each other. People who visit schools get similar answers when they ask to see examples of small group work which teachers claim to be pursuing. It just so happens that there's none on today or you could have seen

some yesterday.

In answer to the question "How are your English lessons organised?", 33% still divided the week's periods into the subject and taught English in about six parts. In contrast with the previous question, "group projects" fell to 35% and only 1% added "small group work" and only 1% again added "individual assignments" when invited to specify other means of organisation not listed.

In other questions, 13% of respondents used only one textbook throughout the year and although 81% thought professional reading was valuable, 29% of teachers had not read any one of the widely known books listed, nor could they name any other title. 49% agreed that English classes in year 7 should be unstreamed, but only 23% approved of unstreamed classes for years 7 - 9. An alarming 25% agreed that "remedial reading is not the concern of the English teacher". The good news was that 90% agreed that "a comment on written work is of more importance than the mark".

At least you and I can gain some comfort from sharing that old problem expressed when we say, "We taught them all that, but they didn't learn it". How do you make it stick? Are we asking too much of teacher education? Certainly we're asking the impossible of a one year Dip. Ed. course.

My own feeling is that advances in teacher education should not be "more of the same" but should involve risk taking. We teachers need, not only to be brought up to date with the best research results, we need also to be encouraged to undertake our own research. Teachers are frightened of research. "That's only done by important people in universities. Anyway we wouldn't have the time even if we were taught the statistics and the jargon in our preservice education".

As John Vaughan mentions in his paper, we need to know what is not known by current research. We need to learn how to observe our own classrooms and those of our colleagues. We need your continuing help and encouragement to undertake joint action research projects in the schools. Get out there with your audio and video tape-recorders, your camera operators and editors. Offer us your typists to transcribe sound tapes, your printers, librarians and telephonists to set up local communications, and offer us your teachers too.

I am concerned at the way some divisions have emerged in the teaching of English to teacher education students just at the time when teachers are beginning to put English together again in the schools. This conference has not concerned itself with the teaching of English as a second language. What is the current situation in Australia regarding the education of E.S.L. teachers? How many of them were given preservice education in your colleges and universities? In N.S.W. pitifully few. How many E.S.L. teachers are what we term "retreads" or "recycled teachers" in N.S.W.? How many of these teachers began teaching as foreign language teachers? Who thought it was a good idea to continue this accident and put the teacher education and reeducation of these teachers into the hands of the foreign language

lecturers? In the schools, teachers too have put the E.S.L. question in the too hard file and in N.S.W. overworked English administrators are allowing the foreign language administrators to take over the care of E.S.L. in the secondary schools.

A similar split exists in N.S.W. with regard to the training of remedial teachers who are known here as resources teachers. The re-education of these teachers is largely in the hands of the psychology and education people. Why aren't the English teacher educators ensuring that the continuing teaching of reading in secondary schools is in their care? The liaison between employer, teacher education administrators and the schools seems to have been non existant.

What particularly concerns me, is that in these two crucial areas in the politics of education; areas too that delight the sensationalist media reporter's eye, patterns of English teacher education are being established and extended that take little or no account of the major developments in language and reading research that have occurred during the last thirty years.

It will come as no surprise to you to learn that I am also displeased to hear at this conference proposals for a further split of English teachers into language teachers and literature teachers. Warwick Goodenough is proposing the wrong deed for the right reason. This would be one way of accommodating the developments in language research but it is not the way indicated by current curriculum development or current good practice in the English classroom.

In preparing to represent secondary teachers at this conference, I sought their opinions and found the traditional desiccated conflict between theory and practice. I am not a good advocate for this opinion but I must remind you of it. If you believe with me that children's talk is at the centre of the language learning situation, then how do you make that idea live with your teacher education students? You have a very difficult task teaching students how to listen to their children. The task is made more difficult because I suspect that most of your students haven't had the experience of being listened to during their own school experience. And during their teacher education what small group talking and listening experiences will their teachers afford them?

I feel that this is a larger kind of change than most of us have reckoned. You will have to so convince your students about the language of learning that they will be able to carry this change to the schools. Teachers *do* work with small groups and *do* try to listen to their children but when their language theory clashes with the demands of classroom management, you know the result. This inevitable conflict demands that all beginning teachers be so well prepared, not only in the language of learning but in the language of the classroom, that the children begin to win and the conflict passes. Further, for young teachers to succeed, they will need even wider ranging knowledge about the language of the staffroom, the language of the principal's office, the language of the inspector, the language of the playground and the language of the parents.

As John Collerson mentions, in referring to a survey of teacher education students at Milperra, students bring to teaching deeply inbuilt concepts about the language of the classroom and the language of learning. English teachers show that the notion of correctness, especially concerning children's writing, still lives in strength. Writing is something that exists to be corrected. English teachers appear to have been born with red biros in their hands. Those vestigial digits will have to wither. When will we all respond to children's meaning instead of marking it? The question of grammar still lurks. More alarmingly, the "back to basics" bandwaggon turns out to be a publisher's disguise and the textbooks of the fifties and sixties are not being recycled but regurgitated. In the face of this, let alone the economic and employment uncertainties to be faced by beginning teachers, they are going to need a great deal of experience with the language.

Is it too much to demand of young teachers? Is it too much to demand of their pre-service education? I remain optimistic. I only doubt whether the changes will be adequately working in the schools in ten or twenty years time. My priorities for teacher education in English would begin with a thorough and exciting study of language acquisition and development that developed such a curiosity about the language that the beginning teachers couldn't stop themselves pursuing the theory in their practice.

WHAT THE EMPLOYER WANTS

John Vaughan

1. Introduction

The letter of invitation informs me that "the aims of the conference will be to examine the potential contributions to teacher education of lecturers in the areas of English, English Education or Language Arts . . ."

On the wall of my office hangs a cartoon. It depicts two clerks at desks. One, holding a telephone to his ear, is conferring with the other, saying, "He wants his call transferred to somebody who knows what he's talking about. Is there anybody like that here?"

You appreciate, I trust, my difficulty. Unfortunately the conference organisers have been markedly unco-operative in refusing to transfer the call. My hope must be that there is nobody else who knows what he is talking about, though that, I fear, is a vain hope.

Let me, then, try to fulfil my obligation of speaking to the issue: **What the Employer Wants.**

Initially I must make two basic decisions:

1) Do I place the emphasis on English or on education?

2) Do I regard the employer as the immediate employing authority which provides the teacher with a job, as the school, in which the teacher works, as the community, or as that employer once removed who employs (among other things) the consequences of the teacher's endeavour?

The first question poses no significant problem. Language is so central to the whole process of education that I discern no necessity for differentiation.

The second question is rather more difficult. Let me simply state that my definition of the employer will embody all of the possibilities mentioned because I see them as inter-locked in such a way that attempts to separate them would be perilous.

2. English and Education

I begin, then, with a consideration of English and education and the ways in which they are related.

Traditionally, and until comparatively recently, English in education was regarded as some kind of mix of language and literature,

competence in which should be demonstrated mainly in the written form. Only gradually, and frequently reluctantly, have schools and systems given formal recognition to listening and speaking.

Thus, the 1974 Syllabus in English for Years 11 and 12 in New South Wales states that the aims of the 3-unit and 2-unit courses are:

1. *To improve one's abilities to understand and appreciate written and spoken English, and to write and speak English well.*
2. *To develop and refine individual response to English literature, both present and past.*

In the 2-unit A course the presentation is reversed and stated in one sentence, in the interests of an "integrated" approach.

It might legitimately be argued that this kind of statement is narrowly pedantic.

Language casts a wider net. It is what students use as they respond to and explore both themselves and the environment in which they live. In the words of the 1973 Syllabus for Years 7-10 in New South Wales:

> *English for 12 to 16 year-olds should be an active pursuit: a matter of pupils developing competence by engaging in an abundance of purposeful language-activities, enjoyable because they are appropriate to needs, interests and capacities. For this reason all objectives of English are stated as 'ability to do something': to listen, read, speak, and write, and in so doing to interpret, discriminate, communicate, evaluate . . . The competence sought is no mere utilitarian skill, but involves essentially human qualities of thought and feeling, because it is by language that we organise our human experience.*

The 1974 statement on Language for Primary Schools states bluntly that:

> *A child's language development depends upon his using language. Through listening, talking, reading and writing he acquires skill in using language and an intuitive knowledge of how language works . . . Language is part of the child's total development.*

The view that language is much more than accumulated knowledge and skills, that it is the fundamental tool of human learning and an essential aspect of development has, for some time, had research support. But research findings which indicate the desirability of new directions tend to run against the battlements of tradition. Whorf, Vygotsky, Britton and Bullock have, in turn, had to demonstrate again Plato's proposition: "When the mind is thinking it is talking to itself".

Cassirer[1] explains how humans apply a symbol system between external stimuli and responses, making use of previous experience to

1. E. Cassirer, An Essay on Man, Yale University Press, 1944.

modify responses and, in due course, developing a predictive capacity.

> *It is an indisputable fact that the most important tool for survival, for communication and for obtaining knowledge and skills is language.*[2]

Despite the glacial nature of significant educational change, these findings are beginning to influence teaching-learning situations. The pervasiveness of language is there and will not go away: recognition of the comprehensiveness of language in education is increasing and will not be ignored.

In New South Wales documents, dealing with both primary and secondary English, a multiplicity of previously discrete items have been brought under more comprehensible and meaningful umbrellas and the stated aim is competence in language use. The prime concern is for ability to do something rather than to know about something. In this context formal exercises in grammar are regarded as unproductive.

Evidence for scepticism about formal grammar exercises has been summed up by Sinclair[3] and others. Sinclair states, on the basis of such evidence, "that teaching grammar to primary pupils is a waste of time". Gadd[4] says, "Lessons in formal grammar may even hinder language development in the classroom by boring or bewildering the child, or by convincing her that her language will never be good enough for the teacher".

Structures are, of course, important. The teacher is not expected to abdicate, but

> *It seems very clear . . . that teachers need to learn about the current research in language, why the research is being done, how it is carried out, what is known at the moment and, every bit as important, what is not known . . . Teachers should listen to the language of their students. They should find out how systematic the language of children can be and they should develop a sensitivity to the editing process that takes place as one person listens to another.*[5]

In other words, the child, not the grammar, is the focus of the enterprise.

Associated with new curriculum approaches is a growing recognition that words may be assembled into an infinite variety of intricate patterns and that they extend beyond the fields of record and communication to become the stuff of thought, of exploration, of action. Moreover, the patterns are being seen as more important than the constituent words, and vital language structures are taking precedence over stultifying language analysis.

2. Roger Shuy, in The Teaching of English (Austn UNESCO Seminar), Austn Government Publishing Service, Canberra, 1973.
3. R. Sinclair, The Primary Journal, Vol.2, No.6, 1977.
4. Bernard Gadd, Talk on Radio N.Z. reported in English in New Zealand, July, 1973.
5. Roger Shuy, *op. cit.*

At last educators are becoming willing to talk about the discovery of language across the curriculum – where it has been all the time.

3. What Does the Employer Want?

If I am to assume the role of employer and respond to the question, "What do I want?" the simple answer is that I want teachers (not just teachers of English) who understand the significance of language – how language is developed and how it is used. I want them to understand that language permeates and facilitates the whole process of education, that English belongs not only in English lessons but in all lessons.

In the words of Taylor[6]:

> *The primary skills are needed everywhere. You do not need label them and isolate them – periods for this, periods for that. . . . Not only can subject boundaries be eroded, so can those between in-school and out-of-school activities. What is learnt at school can be practised everywhere.*

I believe that teachers need to be aware of and sensitive to the kind of world in which we all live. It is both large (perhaps extending to the moon) and small (visible nightly on the square screen).

Today's world is significantly different from the world of yesterday. Perhaps one needs but to say, space-ship, Concorde, fission-fusion, automation, television, computer, neutron bomb to make the point. People, too, are different. There is a new concern among youth for preservation of the environment, and about the dangers inherent in technology.

> *That the English classroom has changed so much ought not to cause surprise. Continual technological innovation, an explosion in scientific knowledge and in the creative arts, and rapid social change, all must inevitably make their mark both on the language itself and on the way it is taught in the schools. . . . Fundamental is the teacher's knowledge that language is an integral and inseparable part of the psychological development of the individual. Within months of birth the infant is using sounds, then words and within a couple of years, sentences, to explore his environment and his self. By the time he reaches Kindergarten he almost certainly has a firm grasp of the essential grammar and vocabulary of his native language. The young child has a well nigh insatiable curiosity about his world and himself, and his language grows with incredible swiftness as he enquires, probes, stores up, relates, evaluates and shares what he discovers.*[7]

6. L.C. Taylor, **Resources for Learning**, Penguin, 1971.
7. Bernard Gadd, *op. cit.*

These things I want teachers to know. In short, I want teachers to know a good deal about child development and language acquisition, to realise that "the most important focus in the child's early education centres around language".[8]

I want teachers also to know about language – linguistic and stylistic aspects of language and changes over time, the social context of language, the findings of current research.

I want teachers to know how the child learns to listen and to speak, to read and to write, that they may be able to provide natural opportunities for the acquisition of these skills. I suspect that a great deal of what still goes on in the name of English teaching is based on the myth that scourging brings its own reward, that effective teaching demands that language be analysed and taught step by painful logical step.

If we taught children to walk in the manner in which some would teach them to read and write, all would need wheelchairs.

Teachers should be sensitive to individual student needs and be able to appeal both to the intellect and to the imagination in promoting further development. Subjection to 'lessons' is not particularly important. What is required is a set of experiences which induce students to use language in a variety of ways. They learned to walk by walking, to talk by talking. They will learn to read by reading, rather than learning about books and, vicariously, about literature. They will learn to write by writing, rather than by learning rules of syntax. Indeed it is frightening to note how little writing students do – and how peculiar are some of the exercises set. Apart from professional critics, I wonder how many adults sit down to write outlines of plots, character analyses and evaluations of books read. Students, being remarkably tolerant of teacher eccentricity, frequently attempt such tasks with a measure of cheerfulness, despite limited understandings.

In today's world I also want teachers to assist students to make effective use of the telephone, radio, television, audio- and video-recorder, both as consumers and producers. The teacher's task is to provide inspiration, encouragement, guidance and control, in a delicately poised situation of retaining the reins whilst giving language its head. Effective teaching-learning is not based on casual encounter but on careful planning. It is the nature of the plan that counts.

I wince at the tight rein of the science teacher who could not bear to have a pupil write of an 'exciting' result in a science experiment and suggested the substitution of 'spectacular', as though there were something obscene about a science student being excited.

I wince even more at the recollection of a recently encountered examination paper for 15-year-old students. Its apparent, though unintended, purpose was to exorcise all enjoyment of poetry. Presented with a very attractive, short poem, candidates were required to find examples of metaphor, simile, apostrophe, personification, alliteration, oxymoron, hyperbole, metonomy, inversion and rechobism.

8. Roger Shuy, *op. cit.*

Spencer Button[9] has not yet left the classroom.
You may recall Spencer's class which

> *had never realised before what "English" really meant. They could practically repeat the whole of "The Merchant of Venice" by heart. The very word "character" set them ticking off "traits" to the number of sixty for Shylock and twenty for old Gobbo. They could draw maps and charts and graphs of the very innermost soul of Antonio, and they could reckon to the last grain the very weight of Bassanio's love for Portia. All the parts of the play were taken to pieces and laid out for inspection; then they could put the parts together again with no parts left over. They dug out every figure of speech and examined it under a microscope. They knew every allusion, and had opinions about the Elizabethan use of every word in that play. They knew Shakespeare's mind – far better than he did himself – when he wrote that play. They worked through all the past papers in which "The Merchant of Venice" had appeared, and wrote reams and reams upon them, and model answers, and imitated them. They certainly knew "The Merchant of Venice" and they longed for the time when they could tell Shakespeare, and all who peddled him, to go to hell and stay there.*

The tragedy is that such students are likely to generalise their antipathy and consign to hell a fairly comprehensive package of literature, language, teachers and school experiences. The tragedy is compounded when, as in Spencer's case, the students are successful in their examinations.

And in The Sydney Morning Herald of 12/2/77 I read the sage advice to students of this year of one highly successful 1976 H.S.C. candidate:

> English was more difficult to study for. I read the books, Hamlet twice, and *summarised the cribs*;

of another:

> In English I only read most things once, at the beginning of the year. Later on I used notes from class discussions and reference books. *It was not worth reading the novels through again* – for the number of marks it would have been worth.

This is a sad commentary on processes of teaching-learning: it is an indictment of a system which provides for such activity rich rewards.

Give me then the teacher who is able to say:

It's really all that I know about reading to children.
It all depends on someone warmly reading.

9 Brian James, **The Advancement of Spencer Button**, Pacific Books, Melbourne, 1967.

Which in itself gives rise, quite naturally, to warm listening.

. . . . . .

It's really all I know about reading and children,
That warm sharing
And sense, perhaps of conspiracy . . .[10]

I have some hope that Bilshen's[11] students may go on reading – and even enjoying what they read.

Repeatedly I am told of the importance of the "skills" and of examinations and their results. I want my teachers to realise that there is no virtue in the acquisition of skills for their own sake, no purpose in learning to speak if, forever, you have nothing to say, no purpose in learning to read if you never read anything (other than the cribs and the Saturday form guide), no purpose in learning to write if, after the examination, you cease writing. I want my teachers to realise that passing an examination is like a 'plane ticket. It's necessary if you wish to fly – but you need to be flying *somewhere* to *do something.* Purposeless flying may have a dire result like that which befell the ill-fated oofle-foofle bird.

4. What of Schools?

The nature and quality of teachers will condition the nature and quality of schools. What, then, do I want schools to do?

I answer that question with some sense of humility, realising that every individual and every organisation wants schools to do something and that what one wants is frequently antithetical to what another wants.

> *We are moving toward an idea of teaching which recognises that the teacher may not know all that is required now and most certainly does not know all that the children will need to know in order to be able to manage themselves in the world which lies ahead. The aim is now to develop the child's learning powers, to put into his possession a tool kit with which he can carry out the tasks which face him, some of which can hardly be guessed at today . . .*
> *Cognitive structures are important but so too are those related congeries of attitudes, feelings, values and emotions which are an essential part of being human.*[12]

In New South Wales there has been much debate over recent years about the aims of education, which have now been stated to be concerned with the development of the individual in social context, through stages, towards perceptive understanding, mature judgement, responsible self-direction and moral autonomy.[13] Guidance is envisaged

10. E. Blishen, The Lecturer's Confession, T.E.S., 24/12/76.
11. *Ibid.*
12. J.D. Turner and J. Rushton, The Teacher in a Changing Society, Manchester University Press, 1974 – Chapter by Turner.
13. W.J.A. Vaughan, Report on Aims of Secondary Education, 1974 and Aims of Primary Education, 1977, N.S.W. Government Printer.

neither as conditioning nor complete freedom: education is seen as providing relevant, enriching experiences promoting both cognitive development and development in the values area. At the core of the operation are processes of thinking, inquiring, discovering, analysing, synthesising, hypothesising, generalising, applying facts, principles, theories and skills in new situations. Values are to be seen in their relationship to decision making, thus promoting understanding of self and others.

The total emphasis is directed to process rather than content. Questioning and understanding support memorising. Independence is more significant than passive acceptance. Subject inter-relationships are more important than individual disciplines. The school is a flexible environment in which initiatives may be taken, innovations introduced and in which students work at different speeds on different materials and with different purposes. Nonetheless the purposes are clear to both teachers and pupils. There is an acceptance of the Goodlad proposition that "The single school is the largest and the proper unit for educational change. The single teacher is too small a unit to be a focus for significant change . . . The school system is too large a unit. . . ."[14]

There is a presupposition in the concept of the flexible school, catering for the individual learner. The school must adjudge where the individual stands in the scheme of things – his stage of development, strengths and weaknesses. In educational writings this idea is frequently presented as, "beginning where the child is". This is not as easy as superficially may seem to be the case.

> *Start from where the child is is a good motto.*
> *But what is the child? Start from where his body is, with environment studies that ought to be renamed 'local studies' to prevent misunderstanding or from where his mind is (probably on the row his mum and dad had last night), or from where his imagination, his 'shaping spirit' is? . . .*
> *The real child is often where his daydreams are.*[15]

Creber also makes the point that the school may be satisfied with performance which is superficial and meaningless to both child and teacher. This type of performance is reflected in the competent chanting of tables (which some enthusiasts continue to advocate), in naming the rivers down the east coast of Australia (which, in some minds, passes for geography), in telling the fairy story of Dirk Hartog's wretched pewter dish (which is an alternative to historical understanding).

Creber[16] takes up the issue in reading:

> *Reading problems may be aggravated by a poverty of conceptual experience so that words are readable but the ideas*

14. J. Goodlad, **Schools Can Make a Difference**, Educational Leadership, November, 1975.
15. J.W.P. Creber, **Lost for Words**, Penguin, 1972.
16. *ibid.*

behind them inconceivable. . . . the impoverished child has to struggle with unpictureable things as well as hard-to-read words . . . This was borne in on me as I visited primary schools in depressed urban areas. The eagerness was remarkable, even pathetic; given the least encouragement, they queued up for me to hear them read. Strident and unkempt, these children haltingly retailed stories that were nearly as incomprehensible as they were dull – haltingly, but with enormous willingness. A few, mostly Pakistani girls, read with enormous fluency and almost total incomprehension.

The danger is that the school may accept such performances as evidence of learning. Such acceptance can occur when the school fails to determine its aims and priorities, fails to discern that experiences in the areas of investigation, communication and expression should appropriately be coupled with the acquisition of knowledge and the development of understandings, attitudes and values. Children need to be involved in, rather than simply exposed to learning experiences.

I discern the school as an integral part of the community, engaged in a shared responsibility of providing learning experiences. It is appropriate that school experiences should both supplement and complement experiences outside and should, as necessary, compensate for experiential deficiencies. There would then perhaps be less reading "with enormous fluency and almost total incomprehension".

The school must increasingly be about the task of discerning individual pupil potential and developing individual teaching-learning programmes to stretch each to the limit – but not beyond. Programmes which are excessively demanding destroy confidence.

In the provision of such programmes, the school needs to muster and assess resources available – human and material – both inside and outside the school. Only when this is done effectively can they be used with optimum pupil benefit.

I want the school, as a corporate entity, to realise that, just as the teacher has many roles, so there is a variety of roles for the learner to play. The child must never be seen as a passive recipient of the fruits of wisdom – many of which may be rotten at the core. The child is an inquirer, a discoverer, and independent learner, a group or team member or leader, a resource person, a human support, a teacher. These roles are woven into curiously complex patterns which differ from child to child and change in form over time.

There is a challenge for the school in the view that:
Change in both school and society is widespread and accelerating. The development of a person capable of coping with change may indeed be the major educational imperative of our time.[17]

17. W.J.A. Vaughan, **Report on Aims of Primary Education**, N.S.W. Government Printer, 1977.

And just as development of the individual is a continuing process, so is education a continuing process. Whatever the school does must be under constant scrutiny and the subject of recurring evaluation in order that it may be restructured to cope with changes in the individual and changes in society.

Let me now return to an earlier theme. I suggested that every individual and every organisation wants the school to do something. Increasingly is the school called upon to solve every individual and social problem. Having contributed to the demand, I now state bluntly that I believe far too much is expected of the school.

Given the hard fact that, in the first 18 years of the life of any child the school has access to 9% of the time and noting the impact of this limited experience, I never cease to be amazed by the miracle of schooling.

And that brings me to my final consideration –

5. What does the Employer (Once Removed) Want?

Assuming realisation of my expectations of teachers and schools, what might be reasonable expectations on the part of that employer who employs (among other things) the consequences of their collective endeavour?

That employer is not here to state a case – which leaves me to state one with which he would very likely disagree.

It seems to me that far too many employers try to induce schools to produce human units carefully prefabricated to fit neatly into jobs which the employer has available.

I cannot reconcile this production-line concept with my views on developmental education. This aside, if education were a week-long process it might just be possible to prepare this week's learners for next week's jobs – though there would be some risks. What is usually sought, however, is at least a secondary school course of some four years' duration, to prepare today's 11-year-old for employment at age 15 or 16. Given technological development and today's rate of social and economic change, the trouble is that the preparation would, in an alarming number of cases, be for jobs which would not be there.

It is all too easy to make facile assumptions about the relationship between educational experience and vocational opportunity. The simple preparation of people to fill job slots does not create the slots. It is more likely to produce disappointed, disenchanted people – people unemployable because of lack of flexibility, arising from the substitution of limited training for more broadly based, developmental education.

The task of the school is to provide education, not vocational training. The task of the school is to assist pupils to make wise choices and to help them to realise that, because of the impact of forces beyond their control, the first choice may not be the last.

And, finally, I would wish the employer to recognise the

significance of his own role as an educator.

6. Conclusion

In my several employer roles, what do I want of teacher-educators, of teachers, of schools?

In brief:

I want teachers who are professionally knowledgeable and, more significantly, humanly sensitive, dedicated to the view that education is a people enterprise and that children are the focus of that enterprise.

I want teachers as individuals and schools as corporate entities to make realistic assessments of what they can and cannot do.

I want them to understand that education is about development, is unified, is experiential, is active.

I want them to appreciate the enormous significance of language in the lives of human beings.

I want them to take pride in what they do and resist that diversion from proper purposes which some people of myopic vision would inflict upon them.

I want them, at the same time, never to be satisfied with things as they are, never to stagnate, but always to be striving to cope more effectively with the present and to equip their pupils to cope with the future. That is the challenge.

I want all of us to accept that challenge.

SOME TRENDS IN TEACHER EDUCATION IN AUSTRALIA: AN INDIVIDUAL IMPRESSION

Warwick Goodenough

Apart from economic depression which we share with much of the community, there is a good deal of dissatisfaction with the ways in which we educate teachers of English, Language, and what are vaguely called "Language Arts". The more limited resources may enable us to reduce that dissatisfaction by educating a smaller number of graduates more adequately, by a provision of better in-service education, and courses for those who are not teachers but who need language teaching.

The apparent need for more language teaching in the community, and therefore in teacher education, is made plain by community and political concern. For example, the Education Policy of the Liberal Party of S.A. for the 1977 state election includes these statements:

> *"BASIC SKILLS:*
> *We attach great importance to the need for skills in LITERACY and NUMERACY to be acquired in our primary schools.*
> *All teachers should be involved in inculcating standards of literacy, a task which must not be left only to English teachers. We will enter into immediate dialogue with teacher education institutions to determine whether current methodology is adequately equipping teachers to teach reading skills. We will encourage the development of courses involving language study, the acquisition and development of language, the teaching of reading for English teachers of all grades, and the improvement of communication skills.*
>
> *DISADVANTAGED PRIMARY SCHOOLS*
> *Remedial teachers and special teachers will be appointed where there is special need. Disadvantaged schools will be given special funds for the provision of bilingual staff, remedial staff, ancillary staff, special education texts, and library hardware and software . . . In schools where non-English speaking migrants are in a high proportion we believe that senior staff and administrators should be multi-lingual to communicate with parents and students.*
>
> *SECONDARY EDUCATION:*
> *. . . There are fewer labouring occupations in our rapidly*

automated society. All teachers should assist in the pursuit of adequate communication skills for their students.

TECHNICAL AND FURTHER EDUCATION:

. . . Adults wishing to retrain for a new occupation must have the facility to do so as automation makes manual workers redundant. Bridging courses in basic literacy and numeracy are necessary; they are essential for non-English speaking migrants as pre-training."

Apart from showing concern, these policies imply very particular, specialised language orientations and theoretical academic positions not commonly available in Australia. Party politics is entering the tertiary education field in very specific ways and implying *ONE* of a choice of professional approaches to problems by using terms like "the acquisition and development of language", "communication skills", "bilingual staff", "bridging courses in basic literacy", etc. Whether or not politicians should determine details of university and C.A.E. curricula, indeed whether or not the implications of such a policy are clear to the writers, are questions I do not wish to take up in this paper. I wish to make strongly the point that what happens in teacher education is being increasingly scrutinised by public and politics alike, and many of us are ignorant of the very different patterns of teacher education in language in Australia.

The National Committee on English Teaching has been required to "advise on teacher education", and has conducted a nationwide survey into teacher education in English, language and language arts : only one or two institutions refused to take part. The data is being processed during 1977 in the Faculty of Education at Monash University and a draft report will be available for members of a study conference in Canberra, January 8 - 12, 1978.

Not all data is processed : there are descriptions of courses, resources, interviews with heads of departments and courses, and a teacher questionnaire of some length. The frank interviews, conducted by trusted and well-informed tertiary teachers, have been transcribed from tapes. I have spent only one week reading some of the material, so that this paper can only suggest subjective personal impressions, and these may well change with closer analysis. Clearly, too, one survey, and that of 1975, will tell nothing much about *trends* and that aspect is also a subjective impression at this stage.

My first impression of teacher education in English is one of confusion, of contradiction, inexplicable variety, disparate standards, vagueness, muddle and irrationality. The same data might also be described as one of rich variety, regional variations meeting regional needs, variety of choice for students, colleges serving differing state needs, and adaptable institutions influenced by different but equally scholarly rationales. Whether one sees mud or stars perhaps isn't relevant. However, there are some inescapable major problems to be solved which include:

(i) The structural and administrative deficiencies in tertiary institutions which make appropriate language specialisations difficult to achieve.

(ii) The fragmentation of content, theory, method and teaching practice into different departments or sections of institutions, resulting in imbalance, confusion and contradiction.

(iii) Professional limitations, uneveness, inexperience or poverty of administration.

(iv) Inequalities in support and resources and budgets for language education between institutions.

(v) Nomenclature of awards and of units within awards.

(vi) Differences of philosophy and theoretical assumptions (including psychological, sociological, political and linguistic as well as literary assumptions) underlying courses, and differences reflecting the power structure within institutions and the biases of staff.

Courses may be roughly categorised according to emphases. The main categories include:

Literature courses. These occur in both universities and colleges. They appear to concentrate on British literature and literary criticism, and assume often a Leavisite approach, a belief in the power of literature to develop language sensibility in the reader and imagination in the writer. They assume that largely British literature contains all of the necessary linguistic ingredients in teacher education. Often they express no interest in teacher education and tend to deplore the intellectual power and written expression of current students and despise work in primary and especially in secondary schools. They sometimes reflect an English liberal class-based elitism. They complain about the "appalling standards" of students, but seldom reflect that it may be that these appalling standards result from their own *de facto* involvement with teacher education. The staff tend to be the most highly qualified in terms of university degrees.

Behavioural psychology courses. A few institutions take a behavioural view of language and teacher education, which is a poor model for language and worse for literature. They are strong in elements of educational psychology, psychology, developmental stages of growth, language behaviour, diagnosis, remediation, behaviour modification, kits and programmed learning, code-breaking, psycholinguistics, clinical work and research. There seems to be small and decreasing support for this kind of "special education" orientation for normal children.

Methodology courses. Some institutions are so concerned with methodological aspects that other content is peripheral or negligible. They occur more in primary teacher education than in secondary, and emphasize "instruction", educational media, phonics, neat handwriting, good spelling, clear speech, classroom management, perhaps group

learning, and what are called "language arts" (though often there is little language and less art). They are criticized for a lack of integrated theory and because they seem superficial.

"Language arts" courses. This is not a good description but categorises courses which are seen to contain many soft options. They steer between the academic, intellectual, and theoretical issues on the one hand, and the methodology-at-all-costs on the other. Courses include much creative writing, creative drama, literature and art and music, dramatic performance, story-telling, children's literature, the media, "vitally personal" elements of reading, women's liberation, aesthetics of film, social communication, practical arts and emphasis on moral and domestic virtues.

Linguistic courses. In spite of a shortage of competent linguists in Australia, a number of institutions increasingly centre their courses in language, linguistics, psycho- and socio-linguistics, language acquisition and development, language laboratories, TESL and TEFL units, children's language, language theory, Australian speech, inner city language, migrant education, reading, phonetics, the history of language, language learning strategies, language across the curriculum and the teaching of literacy. This trend perhaps dominates the scene in teacher education. It is, of course, a demanding area requiring more than desultory interest and there are perhaps dangers that it may become another trendy bandwagon unless adequate planning and staffing are devoted to it.

Other courses. There are many other emphases in courses, from "writing nice sentences" to "the message of Catholic Christianity". It is sometimes difficult to assess how relevant some of these are to teacher education in language.

What is clear is that teachers who teach language and literature in Australian schools are exposed to differing beliefs and assumptions, to courses unrelated or even contradictory in content taught by different kinds of departments, differently structured in different institutions. The subject "English" is variously the province of literature, linguistics, methodology, media, communication studies, educational psychology and other areas. There is little agreement about whose province it is, about what teachers need to know, and how language teaching should be structured within institutions to provide the specialist knowledge required for teachers of "English". This should be a matter of professional, public and political concern.

It also seems clear that there is a growing consensus that the teacher in early and middle childhood is, *ipso facto*, a language specialist, and is being increasingly educated in that capacity. There is less consensus about what "English" is supposed to involve in the secondary school and what specialisation is needed. My own conviction (which has little support) is that secondary language and secondary literature teachers should have partly *separate* courses and be *separate*

specialists because of the impossibility of adequate training in both areas in pre-service courses.

There are other trends worth stating briefly, with the proviso that later and fuller analysis may or may not confirm initial impressions. They include :

(1) There appears to be some dissatisfaction within and without institutions with the end-on Diploma of Education pattern of teacher education in English.

(2) Traditional British literature is giving way to more American and Australian literature. More institutions are insisting on some Australian component. (Australian literature seldom appears in Australian school syllabuses : we seem doggedly determined to remain colonies of somebody or other.)

(3) Some institutions have adopted particular approaches proselytised by institutions overseas, or by visitors, or by professional associations. Educational drama and language across the curriculum are two examples.

(4) Linguistics and language study, largely derived from overseas studies, are increasing rapidly, supported by little local investigation.

(5) There seems to be a trend to re-establish the specialist teacher in language and/or literature.

(6) There is a growing impatience with superficial aspects of English studies and an insistence that language has a complex and demanding content and cognitive and intellectual dimensions which have not been fully understood.

(7) There is an increasing interest in migrant and Aboriginal language problems and in equality of opportunity for children. Both have been long neglected in teacher education. There is perhaps a need to concentrate resources also on the problems of the ordinary, central 80% of children in schools, and to consider if there is a growing paralysis attacking the minds of normal, average, competent children who are reported to be "reluctant learners".

(8) The allocation of time to adequate language courses is a commonly perceived inadequacy. Some consider the time spent on academic education courses or methodology to be excessive.

(9) There is general pleasure about the qualities of mature age students, and the time that they are likely to remain in the teaching force.

(10) Studies in children's literature are increasing and the trend seems to be towards academic and literary studies linked with developmental and linguistic elements. Some

institutions consider such studies to be not respectable.

(11) There is a growing interest in in-service education, partly for professional reasons and partly because it may be lucrative.

(12) Most encouraging is a dissatisfaction with the ways in which teachers of *language* are educated and a determination to do it better.

Some of these matters have been the concern of the U.S. National Council of Teachers of English which published in 1976 a **Statement on the Preparation of Teachers of English and the Language Arts**. The NCTE Committee on Teacher Preparation and Certification has updated the 1967 **Guidelines for the Preparation of Teachers of English**. The **Statement** deserves intensive study, in spite of the cultural differences, the differing values and emphases and traditions which are obvious. A similar document produced in Australia would be an invaluable contribution in the fevers of current discussion.

Finally I would want to make two points. The first is that the tensions of diversity and autonomy may be productive providing all students have access to and free choice of institution and to equivalent awards. Where they do not, there is a case for some measure of agreement in course content. The second is that the few precious years that students have in tertiary education should not be wasted on trivia, and that they should be as demanding and stimulating and exciting as my own very modest education. For many students, at present, it is a rigid and dreary ritual.

SECTION 3
CONFERENCE VOICES

REFLECTION ON REFLECTIONS ON A CONFERENCE

Hi. Having had access to the editoress prior to her exposure (what kind, you beast?). and, therethrough, to the shape of the publication and to some of the post conference reflections, I hereby reconstitute my action knowledge (I bet you couldn't have predicted that). The way to power and reputation may well lie in a cunning written word or two; a snipe well hidden in the depth of the print, disclaimer – I'm not naive – to create one's oneness, power and majesty. Never again to kiss a chairman, never to carouse. Just stay out of sight, site your machine gun a foot above the floor, and merely scythe down by firing just above the knee. (Take care, not too much higher, or you might literalize a metaphor, and make a man a slave.)

Expressive rubbish. Away with that.

For me, the most important 'carry-away-from-the-conference-in-your-kitbag' item was that challenging question, *How do teachers make their criteria available to pupils*? It gives me both practical and theoretical trouble. At the former end, I find my teaching has a built-in mystification element, turning on this point. Suppose you believe that the most powerful means for reconstituting knowledge comes from after the event reflection. (We could, with different consequences, focus upon the kind of reflection which allows us to savour the pleasure, to retell to oneself the agonies and joys of the chase – spectator role, with narrative a primary act of mind; or upon reflection which urgently requires distillation of practice so that tomorrow may have more successful outcomes – participant role, with clinical analysis a primary act of mind.) One finds oneself therefore engineering experience for the students, which makes sense for them only when they look back on what they have done. A guide, if you like, which leads the traveller to a high peak from which he can survey where he has been only when he gets there; a journey which, left to his own initiative, would not have been worthwhile starting because he cannot conceive what the view is like. So I find I have been prone actually to withhold the criteria.

At the theoretical level, I have been facing up to the question of *quality*; not only what might or might not be worth doing, but also of the differences between personal values and socially sanctioned values, in both knowledge and in personal stance. How can one articulate one's tacit understandings, let alone debate their coherence, prior to a mutual understanding of what is at issue? I can make my criteria available, and intelligible, to colleagues of like mind, but the students seem only to get more confused.

I'm working on the difficulties.

(I find here, that through speculation, I have become expressive

in the transactional. The *theory* allows for that.)

A weak and forced poetic (Unaccustomed as I am)

Pupils: pay close attention to my words,
They speak with my voice,
They say what I mean them to say.

In the garden, one more bud,
Not selected for pruning,
Withers.

Jones! Listen in carefully.
Your last assignment was deficient.
Apart from the spelling, punctuation,
Sentence construction,
Especially non-agreement of subject and verb,
No, especially the spelling,
You have given no supportive reasons,
No paradigm cases,
To argue your point.
What do you mean, you don't like Lawrence?
Relevance, boy, relevance.
Your Australian childhood doesn't matter, boy,
The fact that your mum prefers you to him doesn't matter, boy,
The fact that you live now, him then, doesn't matter, boy.
Don't you know he is celebrated in Universities,
And crowned by leaves.

In the garden, an axe falls on the stem,
And growth, if possible,
Lies underground.

Listen, all of you,
Listen.
Do as I say,
And you may,
Survive the next day.

The root withers, with strangled cry,
I'd rather die.

Bernard

ERICA WHERE ARE YOU? Some Thoughts on Your Paper

While reading your paper, Erica, I have been asking myself 'Where have I heard all this before?' All this about listening to the spoken and unspoken word of others, about explaining complex things in simple terms, about watching for and taking account of other's feelings, about helping them gain confidence to think on their feet or solve problems or say what's on their mind.

Ah, now I have it!

No, Erica, what you're offering doesn't amount to another subject to be taught in the school curriculum – at least to me it doesn't. What your're doing is already there, implicit in the approach to the teaching of English and other subjects that we'd recommend for all our educational institutions, isn't it? For doesn't your way simply mean taking more care for others? And that's been a central issue at this Conference.

So why am I disturbed by your paper, Erica? Why is my chemistry out of kilter, so to speak?

I suppose one reason is that, from what you say, few people have been treated in the way we'd all like during their various levels of education. And I guess that I feel uncomfortable to think that this probably includes pupils and teachers with whom I have worked in my professional capacity, irrespective of whether you consider my expectations about this unrealistic or not.

As well as that, I suppose I wonder to what extent a three day course (or a course of any length for that matter) can really make up for thirteen or more years of indifferent teaching.

Not that education is entirely to blame though, Erica, is it? Where's the social chat in the pub or over coffee, the sing-a-long evenings, the hours to waste (?) fishing with our children, in-laws, or friends, the time for peace and quiet and humour without worrying about who's being manipulated? Yes, I know that in the busyness of being human someone's always in there for himself but I wasn't altogether happy with your approval of it. Not all talk is aimed at getting things done to our own liking, surely?

All I hope, Erica, is that courses like yours aren't seen as the way out for teachers, at home or in school, from taking a better look at what they're doing before they do it. You know what I mean. Somebody will say "I'm not here for that sort of thing. Take out your text book and open to page . . ."

Now, where have I heard that before?

Graeme

SCHOOL REPORTS

When I sit down to write my school reports
What of mankind do I see in this child?
What piece of work is man?
Just *how* noble in reason?

> "John is a trier sometimes but
> lacks concentration.
> His results would improve
> if he worked a little harder".

But it's not true.
I know it as I write.
He is working harder
At defining
himself
than defining this word or that;
At clarifying
What's worthwhile
and who he cares about;
At being himself
Not being an A or B
or even a

"Works hard. Satisfactory result".

Barry

CONFERENCE RESOLUTIONS

Motion 1. (presented by Warwick Goodenough)

This conference recognises that the complexities of language needs, the growth and variety of demands on children's learning, the requirements by different levels and structures in education, and the historical developments of tertiary institutions, have produced a diversity and variety of appropriate courses in and approaches to English teaching in Australia.

This conference also recognises that teacher education is obliged to help in meeting the linguistic, cultural and social needs of *all* Australian children and especially those with particular language needs.

The conference therefore warmly applauds the initiative of the organisers in bringing together a significant group of teacher educators in English and recommends that such initiatives be taken regularly to further develop and promote adequate and effective teacher education courses in language, literature and language arts in Australia.

Motion 2. (presented by Ted Rush)

Participation in this conference reminds us that there is widespread serious concern for the way in which the teaching of English is researched, surveyed and reported. This often results in misinformation for those who have to make significant policy decisions.

This conference therefore requests that the A.A.T.E. set up a Standing Committee on English in Teacher Education.

Motion 3. (presented by Garth Boomer)

This conference resolves that a letter be sent to the Federal Minister of Education urging him to set up a task force which will concern itself with the role of language in education. A similar letter should also be directed to each state Minister of Education similarly urging that state task forces be established. Letters should indicate that a report outlining the scope of language in education will follow. Ministers should also be directed to consider the relevant recommendations in the Bullock Committee Report.

Motion 4. (presented by Roslyn Arnold)

This conference recommends that representatives of State English Teachers' Associations report to their members the recommendations of this conference and that they undertake appropriate action.

APPENDIX 1

REFLECTIONS OF A ROVING RESEARCHER

Diana Davis

Address presented at the Conference Dinner 1 September, 1977

In contemplating what would be appropriate to say to you tonight, and in deciding what I *would* say to you tonight, I was moved to consider the function of an after dinner speech. To what extent should it be transactional? expressive? poetic? What balance ought one to establish between the regulatory "do as I tell you" function and the interactional "me and you"? Since it was obviously inappropriate to come to such theoretical decisions too early or too readily, I fell to musing about the hybrid I was faced with creating – and, crunching my subconscious into historical gear, I surveyed what I could remember of those After Dinner Speeches I'd heard myself.

Although I've heard many, and indeed many of them have been worthwhile, my mind was a curious blank. So devoid of detail was it that I was prompted to speculate whether one of the most important functions of an after dinner speech might not be to sound impressive and mellifluous, but for one's words to evaporate upon contact with the eardrum and vanish – in much the same way as Spy X might use self-destructing paper and invisible ink in snaking a message to Spy Y. And yet – although details persisted in evading me at that point – I realized that I did have memories, but that they were of a very idiosyncratic kind. They were not strongly connected with individual speakers or speeches, but with the universe of audiences of which I'd been a member.

Whatever functions the *speaker* had intended to perform – to amuse, titillate, proselytize, berate – my vision was always of people in the audience and their responses. My vagrant attention would be drawn to notice who was asleep when, to the pattern of laughter, the span of attention, the schooled expressions of boredom, interest, cynicism.

Tonight I cannot very easily indulge my passion for such discreet observation. The task I have been given is to give voice to the **Reflections of a Roving Researcher**; my dominant purpose must therefore be to reflect, to describe, to analyse, and ultimately to evaluate. Of course, it is mandatory that the good after-dinner speech should stir; this I also intend to do.

When earlier this year I visited those countries to whom we in Australia have traditionally looked for direction and inspiration, I was charged with the brief of examining how such countries go about educating teachers of English, Language Arts, etc., both at the

pre-service and post-graduate levels, for the purpose of providing some international comparative data for the N.C.E.T. Teacher Education Survey. I was also concerned to explore current research in the field and, specifically, to find out the nature and extent of the emphasis placed upon listening and speaking (or oracy) in other countries – both in schools and teacher education courses.

To these ends I travelled extensively in Canada, the U.S.A., Ireland and England – visiting schools and tertiary institutions and interviewing students, teachers and researchers. That I learned a great deal is undeniable, but the nature and direction of the learning was less predictable. In sharing some of this with you I shall focus on three interlocking areas by way of illustration: the areas of teaching, research and professional interaction.

Australian concern about the nature of its teacher education programmes in the broad area encompassed by English was first reflected in the recommendations of the Australian U.N.E.S.C.O. Conference on the Teaching of English, which is now cyrstallized in the N.C.E.T.'s Teacher Education Survey and is further illustrated by the fact that we are meeting here this week "in order to [as Bill Crocker expressed it] spell out to colleagues, administrators and anyone else who is interested what we believe lecturers in our field should be doing, why they should be doing it, and what they need to do it well".

A laudable aim for our gathering but one which is proving to be very capricious, even difficult to fulfil, not surprisingly since the only consensus among the teacher educators to whom I listened around the world was that, although there were severe in-built limitations to teacher education programmes, they personally operated quite effectively in such and such a way despite these limitations. There are in fact no ready answers.

The responses of Heads of Departments and lecturers in the Australian section of the N.C.E.T. Teacher Education Survey indicate that they perceive one of their most significant problems – particularly in end-on-courses – to be lack of time for their work within the total structure of the teacher education programme. Yet even where Method work is allocated 50% of the teaching time – as in many institutions in England – lecturers still express dissatisfaction with the status quo. Certainly the throwing to the wolves, single-hit teaching practice arrangement which exists in a surprisingly high number of institutions overseas poses problems of greater magnitude even than our admittedly far from perfect practices in Australia. Yet my observation is that the dissatisfaction is far more deeply rooted than that. It has its origins, I think, in an almost inchoate recognition of Method people being regarded as second-class citizens, people held in low esteem. For example, in one of the largest institutions for the training of teachers I visited in England, the Method staff – the English component of which included many of the names enshrined on reading lists in this country – were not permitted the final say in the assessment of their students; this had to be mediated by areas who, it appeared, had the ultimate

power of veto over whether or not students were to qualify as teachers.

We have spent the past two days talking about the pre-service qualifications perhaps because little is offered to teachers beyond that level. In England and Ireland few formal courses in the area of English Education beyond the pre-service level are, in fact, available although one may speculate about whether, in England at any rate, this may be largely a reflection of the Englishman's seemingly traditional satisfaction with his first acquired degree. In any case it has the inevitable consequence of leaving the teacher to operate for the remainder of his professional life on the resources provided by his first degree, since his extremely heavy teaching load affords him very little opportunity for interaction with his professional colleagues and only some 3000+ teachers belong to N.A.T.E. (The National Association for the Teaching of English), a very small figure when one considers that A.A.T.E. membership is about 4½ thousand.

The situation in the United States is different but not necessarily better. Whereas the British tend to rest happily with an initial qualification, the urge to acquire additional qualifications amounts, in America, almost to a frenzy. To give you just a single example: A survey of some 1900 secondary teachers of English in New York State (Cayer and Reedy, 1970) published in 1970, found that almost 70% belonged to the National Council, that 33% had a "Bachelor's Degree plus 15 hours or more", 33% had a Master's Degree, and 22% a "Master's Degree plus 30 hours or more". The notion of credit hours has been unfamiliar to us in Australia until recently. Certainly it represents one way both of logging student time as well as creating a definable basis for a fee structure, but it also points to the doggedly additive nature of American higher education – and the possibility that "counting the hours" may not be the most appropriate basis for a higher degree student's work, even if he *is* programmed to rise at 5.30 a.m. in preparation for watching University of the Air.

The courses available to the student in U.S.A. will also differ greatly from those in England. The student in North America may choose to take, for example, three hours of Advanced Writing (Expository) or Advanced Writing (Journalism) or Advanced Writing (Creative); he may undertake a separate study of Oral Interpretation or of Play Production or of School Magazine Production. He may elect to notch up 40 or 50 hours of courses on the minutiae of the reading process. The range of options is often dazzlingly wide and consequently the student does not always manage either to chart a meaningful total course through them, or to gain more than a smorgasbord smattering. In the latter regard we in Australia might well question the proliferation of offerings in some of our own institutions – considering not only the democracy of offering but also the capacities of students to see beyond the preferences and expediencies of their developmental moment.

As we are all too aware, the opportunities in Australia for further formal work in English Education have been limited. Thus some have

chosen to study in overseas institutions; whereas others were forced to do so because they didn't have sufficient qualifications to secure a place in Australia, and economic necessity has made it necessary for many institutions overseas to be grateful for the opportunity to boost falling numbers. While such cross-cultural movement has its advantages, it is also the case that whatever character Australian research and development in English Education may have tends to be highly derivative since it is largely influenced by those who have imbibed at the feet of X or Y in England, or bathed in the aura of A or B in the States. Australian originality – and I believe we have plenty of it – is thus being channelled in directions which may not necessarily make the most appropriate and creative contribution to problems in Australia.

Far from existing with antipodean blinkers, Australians are more concerned with the distant direction – or those who immediately purvey it – than with discerning what may be close at hand. The work of people like Basil Bernstein and James Britton has been accepted far too uncritically here – and far less critically than either of those gentlemen would themselves advocate. Actually as I scanned reading lists for courses in institutions I visited, I was struck, particularly in United States and England, by the parochialism, the almost frightening insularity they reflected. The one set typically comprised Barnes, Britton, Holbrook, Rosen, with the possible addition of others like Whitehead or Wilkinson; the other population of writers had their origins in North America. There was very little intersection between the two sets. Needless to say Australia, with barely one exception, featured nowhere.

Initially I reflected with some pride on the fact that, in Australia, we tend to draw upon and expect our students to use all available courses, but this pride was somewhat tempered by my realization that our apparently ecumenical spirit in this regard was probably born as much of a sense of inferiority as of rigorous intellectual fairplay. In fact we are almost pathologically unwilling to stand on our own feet. A visitor from outer space observing our habits might reasonably conclude that we were the most intellectually dependent race he had yet encountered. We cannot hold a conference or commence a project without securing the offices of an overseas consultant – and we're not even very creative about the countries we scan for possible individuals to invite.

I have no objection to people from overseas and I am particularly delighted to see Douglas again and to meet Robert. Like our visitors here many of these people are charming and intelligent with worthwhile ideas to share. But is *sharing* really integral to our orientation? Australians do belong to the community of scholars, but there is very little in our behaviour which gives evidence of this. We do not typically invite people from overseas to work *alongside* us. Australians are never invited elsewhere in this capacity either or to consultancies at English conferences in other countries – largely, I submit, because implicit in almost everything we do is the premise that expertise from

elsewhere is necessarily better. It isn't – and it's often much worse. A modicum of humility is both endearing and necessary; hero-worshipping subservience is neither. We have at least as much to offer as we have to gain – and it's about time we recognized this and acted upon the realization.

In fact we need – as a group of professionals concerned with the teaching of English – whether it be in Australia, Canada, New Zealand, England or America to take stock and thence to evaluate. As Frank O'Hare pointed out recently, we are now at the end of the post-Dartmouth decade and we need to evaluate its impact. His "intensive scrutiny" of the research Literature of the past decade led him to two rather startling conclusions. His first was that, despite an abundance of research projects, there had been very little research of real significance. His second conclusion was that, to date, there has been no carefully designed, large scale research, and hence no hard evidence, to substantiate the claims being made for the curricular innovations of the post-Dartmouth decade.

Warwick's paper points out that many of the people interviewed in the N.C.E.T. Teacher Education Survey reported that they receive a lesser share of the available resources than they believe to be their due. Some expressed a horror of budgets and the political acumen essential to success in Committee negotiations. People with a training in English are traditionally expected not to be expert in these areas, not to be able to face a table of correlation co-efficients without a twinge of revulsion, and, indeed, to be above administrivia and intra-institution political intrigue.

The accuracy of this stereotype has been largely substantiated by the Survey, as has the fact that the English area in general has certainly lost out because of it. Perhaps a conference or short course to remedy these perceived or real deficiencies might well be more useful than some of the other enterprises for which we so earnestly meet. That not entirely facetious suggestion prompts me to the general observation that therein lies a field of endeavour, relatively untilled, in which we might usefully immerse ourselves.

What do we, in fact, know about the efficacy of conferences? To what extent do they play an effective role in dissemination? Are they occasions on which individuals come with open minds, prepared to share insights rather than intuitions, to communicate rather than exchange social pleasantries? What's the pay-off in classroom, professional and personal terms? What conference models work best – and with what groups? Should they be like the N.A.T.E. Conference I attended earlier this year where the Commission on **Language Across the Curriculum** operated at best on a basis of pooled ignorance and half assimilated understandings, at worst on the basis that the English Teacher's role in **Language Across the Curriculum** was to bring the light of "language" to the rest of the discipline bound curriculum – a process which Basil Bernstein aptly terms "the English Teacher's new imperialism"?

Alternatively, is the N.C.T.E. model of democratically giving maximum voice to everyone -- by having large numbers of parallel sessions each with its own Moderator/Co-ordinator, Presenter, Speaker/Consultant, and Recorder/Reactor -- a more viable model? Or should it be like the proposed A.A.T.E. International Conference with its moveable feast of greats tilling the soil in every state and territory? Really this is a research and development problem well within the competence of everyone present here tonight -- a group of the most inveterate and experienced conference participants in the land, a group cognisant of and attuned to the nuances of numbers, timing, residential locality, cuisine, moods and interaction patterns. It is indeed a challenge affording Australia a unique opportunity of exploration, of investigation, even of recommending a moratorium on Conferences for the next decade; it is the challenge with which I leave you.

APPENDIX 2

BASIC ISSUES ABOUT BASIC SKILLS

Douglas Barnes

A.B.C. Guest of Honour Address. Radio 2. Presented on 23 November, 1977

I'm interested in language and learning, and particularly in how children's talk actually helps them to learn. So I was pleased and flattered to be invited to attend, at the end of August, a conference at Armidale, New South Wales, of teachers from Australian schools, colleges and universities, concerned with preparing teachers to understand the role of language in learning. For me it was an exciting and valuable conference, and I should like to tell you something of what we talked about.

In England recently there has been considerable public concern whether children are reaching satisfactory standards in reading and writing, and I was told at Armidale that there are signs of similar concern here. There seems to be no clear evidence in England of a real fall in standards, and the same is probably true here. The sense of impending economic doom which has hung over us for some years seems to have translated itself into anxiety about the economic efficiency of education, and into anxiety about the effective preparation of adolescents for employment. It seems likely that both here in Australia and in England the proportion of unskilled labouring jobs is decreasing, so that society is demanding higher levels of literacy, just at the time when schools are being given fewer resources.

From one point of view it is not a bad thing to remind teachers that they have a responsibility to prepare *all* their pupils for full participation in adult life – so much of which (in spite of television) still depends on reading and writing. Yet there seems to be some danger in it too. If teachers try to improve standards in reading and writing solely by spending more time on the practising of skills, they may achieve little – and even discourage some children.

Why do we read? Because we want to find out something. Or because we enjoy reading. My own son's first voluntary reading when he was a child came about because he wanted to know about his favourite television programme; so he laboriously spelt his way through the adult columns of the English **Radio Times**. It was much harder language than the primers he was reading at school. The direct teaching of reading skills is necessary, but it doesn't take children far until they themselves find interest in what they read: that's why it is so important for parents to read aloud to young children. Children who have for

years shared first picture-books and then stories with their parents are already more than half-way to grasping the pleasures of reading.

Something similar is true of writing. There are skills that have to be learnt, of course, but children only take off into writing when they find that they have something that they want to say in written form. That's why teachers of very young children often ask them what they want to write, and then write it for them. This gives the child a taste of that satisfaction which comes from giving one's thoughts a more permanent existence on paper. Parents can do this too, of course; but most important of all is for them to talk with their children. I say "talk with" deliberately, since I don't mean "tell them things". I'm thinking about real conversations which show that you are interested in what your children have to say. It is important to be a good listener, and to show that you want to hear what he or she is thinking. Later on you can be a good audience again, when your son or daughter writes little letters and stories for you. Writing isn't just a set of skills. We master the skills because we have something to write about, and someone who wants to read it.

And that's why stressing the mere skills of reading will not take us far with those children who have not yet found the need for them. Children who have been encouraged to talk, and had their talk taken seriously; children who have always been read to, and have shared stories with their parents and their brothers and sisters; children whose first attempts to write have been valued and replied to; these are the ones who will easily master the skills of literacy and make them their own.

Children who have never had such encouragement are likely to find the skills hard to master. Some of them, as we know, never manage to do so. So if the "Back to Basics" movement persuades teachers to stress skills at the expense of all these things which, like good parents, they can do to support their pupils, then it may do harm. Children's language develops as a whole: it includes their talk, their interest and understanding of what they read, their ability to use writing to say something that matters. Teachers need to encourage the development of the whole of language, since the skills of reading and writing are no more than tools through which children's developing ability to mean -- to make sense of the world – expresses itself.

Of all the matters which we talked about at the Armidale conference, this was the one that the school, college and university teachers felt most strongly about. They were eager to find ways of explaining to people (to parents as well as to other teachers) that it is the whole development of children's language that counts. The uneasiness generated by the economic uncertainties of our time should not be allowed to obscure this.

In England, our Department of Education and Science set up two years ago an Assessment of Performance Unit which is to test children's achievement in six areas of the curriculum, probably at the ages of eleven and fifteen. Only a small proportion of children will take the

tests: the Unit wants to avoid overtesting any child or disturbing any school. Testing in mathematics is due to begin next year, and testing in reading and writing the year after. This, too, is partly a response to public uneasiness about standards. The Department of Education and Science hopes that the results from the tests will both reassure the public, and make it possible to remedy any weaknesses that may be discovered.

The great uncertainty for me is what impact this testing will have on schools. Will it urge teachers to yet greater efforts, or will it discourage those in depressed areas whose pupils seem forever at a disadvantage? Will it help teachers to see the whole range of their responsibilities, or will it encourage them to concentrate on those skills that can be easily tested? I myself am a member of the advisory panel charged with recommending what langauge tests should be written, and it is this last question which concerns me, and, I believe, the other members of the panel.

If in reading, for example, we set tests in which children have to fit words into gaps in sentences, we might find that we are encouraging teachers to spend a lot of time fitting words into gaps, instead of helping children to read for pleasure and interest. If this were to happen I for one would think that English schools would be better off without the tests, in spite of the political pressure to show that public money spent on education is money well spent.

We were reminded at Armidale of the need to prepare teachers (and not only teachers of English) for teaching pupils who don't speak Standard English in their homes. In the case of some children of migrant families there may well be a need for direct instruction in English as a second language. But behind this is the much larger problem of children whose English, while adequate for their everyday purposes, differs in some respects from Standard English. For these children, the problem is a different one. They don't need to learn English from the beginning: they already speak English, though perhaps in a form which is looked down on by some people.

In a technical school in a northwest suburb of Melbourne, I watched a second form class of boys and girls improvising little scenes, as part of an English lesson. I was particularly impressed by two of the boys. Their accents, even to an outsider's ear, were clearly those of the working class, but I admired how they improvised the speech of migrant parents talking to their children, with ingenuity and wit that I certainly could not match. These children already have fine control of a dialect of English. The task for teachers is certainly not to wipe out that dialect and substitute a different one: rather it is to help the children discover a wider range of purposes for which they can use it, and to modify it for these purposes.

At Armidale we agreed that all future teachers should follow a course in language and learning. One purpose of such a course would be to change the student teacher's attitudes to dialects spoken by working-class and migrant groups. Such dialects are usually just as systematic

and complex as that high-status dialect which we call "Standard English". If we ask children from these groups to change their language, it is not because it is "bad English" but because it does not perform some of the functions they will need to use it for. For example, if you leave a note explaining something to the boss it needs to be couched in rather different language from that you'd use to your mates, even in talking about the same thing. Young people need to develop sensitivity to what is appropriate in different situations, and this requires the help of their teachers. But all teachers should beware of telling children that the language they speak at home "isn't English".

It is through our first dialect that we cope with our most basic experiences. If we outlaw children's home language we may implicitly tell them that schooling is not for them. Yet we require their collaboration in schooling more than anybody else's. So an important part of language courses for future teachers must be to educate their attitudes to low-status dialects, and to help them to understand how important our own voices are to each one of us as we try to make sense of the world.

And this brings me to my last point. At Armidale we agreed that all future teachers should study what has come to be called "Language across the curriculum". The idea behind language across the curriculum is that when children talk or write, they can at best be sorting out the world for themselves. Even when they are talking or writing about something they've been taught in a lesson they should be trying to make sense of it, to relate it to what they know already.

Young teachers should therefore learn to listen attentively to their pupils' talk. They need to recognise that sometimes in discussions which seem incomplete, not very explicit, perhaps repetitive, the children are going through necessary stages of spelling back to themselves what it is they are just coming to understand. It might be talking through something in their own lives – perhaps the illness of a close relative – or something much more obviously academic, such as explaining what happened in a demonstration in the physics laboratory. In either case, children's growing understanding can be helped by repeated attempts to put their thoughts into words, either spoken or written. Clearly this is a matter of importance in all lessons, and not merely in those labelled "English". So *all* student teachers should study "language across the curriculum", and especially should learn to recognise when it is that children are *talking to learn*, and how they can best encourage this in their lessons.

In the long run I am sure that all of us in Australia and in England want the same thing for our young people. We want them to be able to read and write, but we want much more than that. We want them to grow into men and women who can take responsibility for themselves, who can cope with change and have the confidence to understand it. Home and school should be partners in this, partners in nurturing in every boy and girl the confidence that they can talk themselves into understanding.

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Mr. Geoff Randall	Senior Lecturer in English, Northern Rivers C.A.E., Lismore, N.S.W. 2480
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